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THE INSANE AT HOME.

Why is it that many people will persist in regarding insanity as a disgrace? We have fevers of all sorts without any special sense of shame. A man's liver may be congested, or he may have a chronic enlargement of the heart, or his lungs may be weak, and yet it does not occur to anybody to point the finger of scorn at him on account of his misfortune. But let disease, in its mildest form, attack the brain or nerves, and at once the patient's physician and family enter into a tacit conspiracy to deceive themselves and the world at large by giving some fictitious name to his or her complaint, and sedulously hiding from the public its actual manifestations.

It would be interesting to speculate as to the reasons for the existence of this feeling, but it would be aside from our present purpose, which is rather to point out the injury which results from its indulgence.

For the cure of any existing evil, two things are requisite: first, that the nature of the evil be clearly and correctly apprehended; second, that the proper remedy be promptly and unrelentingly applied. The sooner the existence of nervous disease is recognized, and the more immediately the steps are taken which experience has shown to be most likely to insure recovery, the better.

But what, on the contrary, usually happens? Mr. Lin-crusta Walton is a wealthy merchant. His business engagements absorb all of his time and thoughts, except the few waking hours given by him to recreation. A kind and liberal husband and father, he allows his wife unlimited credit at the bank, never asks to see her private account-book, and leaves to her excellent discretion the ordering of all his domestic affairs, including the government of his children. Mrs. Walton, who is an admirable and devoted woman, accepts the responsibilities thus thrown upon her; she relieves him of every burden which she can take upon herself; makes his home as happy as any home can be made; does all that lies in her power to surround him with a circle of charming acquaintances; and, in addition to her duties as a housekeeper, a nurse, and a governess, entertains company on a grand scale, accepts invitations out, and spends a part of nearly every day in her carriage, returning the visits of her friends; to say nothing of the demands made upon her by the church of which she is a member and the charities of which she is a director. After a certain number of years, the strain upon her energies exhausts her vitality. She has been living not upon the interest, but upon the capital of her physical strength. She is not ill, but she is "nervous." Her nervousness increases, and at last she feels it necessary to speak to her family physician about herself.

A more critical moment than this rarely occurs in the life of any woman. It seems like an ungracious thing to say, but very many physicians in ordinary practice are not qualified to give wise counsel in such an emergency. The human body is a marvellously complicated structure, and the apostle Paul displayed sound medical sense when he said: "If any member suffer, all the members suffer with it." The problem which presents itself to the physician for solution, when lassitude and pain reveal the presence of disease in the patient before him, is to find, if he can, which

one of the organs of the body is the primary seat of the trouble. Now, nervous symptoms are an accompaniment of every disease. The nerves are the seat of pain. It is, therefore, but natural that the general practitioner should interrogate every organ except the brain, and conclude, let us say, that Mrs. Walton is suffering from a torpid liver. If her liver can be stimulated into normal activity, all will be well. The amount of time wasted in experimental treatment for the cure of affections of the liver, the stomach and bowels, the kidneys, and other physical organs, by physicians who are not specialists in nervous diseases, is beyond belief, and is one cause of the accumulation of insanity which, the better it is understood, the more it must be deplored.

The failure of all Dr. Quinine's prescriptions to afford Mrs. Walton relief annoys and puzzles him. Meanwhile she is rapidly becoming more depressed and irritable; she sleeps less; her appetite declines; and she loses weight. Some suspicion of the real state of the case begins to dawn upon him, but he is prudent and politic. So he recommends a journey and the diversion of his patient's mind. To her husband he says: "Try a change of air."

This is the second act in the drama. It already, to an experienced eye, bids fair to prove a tragedy. So far as diversion is rest, the doctor's advice is good. But Mr. Walton knows a good deal more about the stock-market than he knows of nursing, and understands men far better than women. He overflows with energy, and is disposed to make a business of amusement. He is his wife's sole travelling companion, and he lays his plans day by day on the principle that, if diversion is what she needs, she cannot have too much of it. She is easily fatigued, and manifests but slight interest in what amuses him. More and more her thoughts turn inward; she is fast becoming absorbed in self-contemplation; her fancies are morbid, and, having no one else to whom to communicate them, she pours them into his ear. Possibly she reproaches herself for some neglect of duty, or she expresses an absurd jealousy of her husband, or she foresees some dire calamity in the near future, such as the loss of fortune and a home in the poor-house—it matters not what. He expostulates with her, argues, sympathizes, scolds, exhausts all his resources, but in vain. She cannot be talked out of her delusions; he only succeeds in talking them into her. Poor man! he is at his wits' end. But though he sees that she is unlike herself and "queer," it does not occur to him that she is on the verge of insanity. Why, she converses rationally on nearly every subject—she is so gentle, so docile—what *can* be the matter with her? And so at last the journey comes to an end, without any apparent result other than the expenditure of a lot of money and a general sense of discouragement on the part of good Mr. Walton.

Her friends come, to welcome her home. Something in her manner strikes them as unnatural, notwithstanding her self-control in company, and it begins to be whispered about that Mrs. Walton seems "a little off." One lady remarks that something in the expression of her eye reminds her of a distant cousin of her own, who was said to have hysteria. Another fears that, if she should not get better, it may be necessary, sooner or later, to send her to an "asylum." A

third has heard awful stories, from a trustworthy source, of cruelties practised upon patients in institutions, and is sure that she would never let any friend of hers go there, if she could help it—not unless they were likely to kill themselves or somebody else, if allowed to be at large. Even the children take it up, and little Minnie Walton is informed by a schoolmate that “my mamma says your mamma is crazy.” This is duly reported, with the indignant question: “You are not crazy, are you, mamma?”

So much idle gossip angers Mr. Walton and further depresses his wife, who withdraws more and more from society. Well-meant but ridiculous advice is given them both. They begin to distrust and dislike their most intimate associates, and it comes to be understood that as little as politeness will admit must be said to him about her. Only one thing remains to be tried. She is sent away on a visit to relatives at a distance, in the double hope that she may recover her health and that her actual state may not be the subject of so much remark and discussion in her own circle. There, she mopes, is pitied, made much of, indulged in all her nervous whims; some other general practitioner tries his hand upon her; and finally she breaks down completely, an explosion occurs, and, after the loss of precious months of time, when it is too late to avail her any thing, she is placed in an institution, where she has her ups and downs, but sinks by degrees into a chronic melancholy, terminating in dementia and death.

It must not be supposed that this picture is overdrawn. A veil has been thrown over all its most distressing features. Neither is the history here given at all uncommon. Every superintendent of an institution for the insane can recall numerous instances in which every incident related has had an exact parallel in his own experience and observation.

But why have we told the story? Simply to illustrate and enforce the truth, so difficult to impress upon those who most need to learn and appreciate it, that the early removal from home of every sufferer from nervous disease is an almost indispensable pre-requisite to recovery. Pride and prejudice stand in the way of such removal, but these are poor counselors at best, and, in such a case as we have described, they are little less than accessories to murder.

The difficulty lies in the popular misapprehension of the real purpose of hospitals for the insane. They are supposed to exist for the protection of the sane against the insane, as prisons are built for the protection of honest men from rogues. This is in fact one function which they do fulfil, but it is not their highest function nor their primary design. They are institutions for the cure of insanity, and the reason why more are not cured is that more persons are not sent to them in the incipient stages of this dreadful disease.

“But why,” we are asked, “cannot the insane be equally well treated at their own homes, or, at least, in private houses?” There are even doctrinaires who contend that they can be better cared for at their homes than in institutions. God forbid that their number should increase!

We have hinted at one reason—the ignorance of insanity which prevails to so great extent among physicians in ordinary practice. But there are other reasons, which we will endeavor to explain.

It would probably be not far from the truth, to assert that (in the vast majority of instances, at least) the explanation of mental derangement is to be found in the absence of a normal equilibrium between the amount of work demanded of the brain and the amount of nutrition which it receives. A well-nourished brain can do a prodigious amount of work. But if the work is excessive, or the nutrition insufficient, the strain becomes unendurable, the mechanism of thought fails to respond to the requirements of the situation, a lesion occurs, and insanity is the result. Hence we discover the largest proportion of insane, first, among those whose position and responsibilities or habits entail upon them more than ordinary mental effort; and, second, among those who, by reason of poverty or from some

other cause, are poorly fed, or, if well-fed, are so constituted or so affected, that the supply of blood to the brain is inadequate. Where disease of the brain is suspected, the two most important remedial agencies indicated are food and rest. Medication plays a very inferior rôle in the cure of insanity.

Take these two in the reverse order, and, to begin with rest, this is usually what a nervous invalid cannot get at home. It is usually at home that all the causes and occasions of mental anxiety, disappointment, and irritation operate with the most force and the least intermission. Only by removal can the effect be hindered, by checking the operation of the cause. This seems too obvious to need amplification.

On the other hand, there are few families anywhere which are prepared to furnish to nervous invalids the kind and amount of special diet which they require. They must be fed often, coaxed to eat, tempted by delicacies; the cooking and the service must be exquisite; their appetites must be stimulated by variety; a scientific choice of foods is necessary, having regard to their nutritive properties and the ease with which they can be assimilated; special preparations, such as peptonized milk, are often indicated; food must, in some cases, be supplied by night as well as by day; and the effect upon the digestive organs must be closely watched and accurately estimated. The first effort of a skilful neurologist is to repair the waste of brain tissue, to build up the system, to insure a bountiful supply of rich and healthy blood. The ordinary private house does not possess the facilities for such treatment, nor the cooks capable of using them to advantage, if they had them.

But, admitting, in a given case, (1) that the attending physician knows enough not to confound the brain with some other organ of the body, and treat that organ primarily, giving large doses of medicine to correct the observed local symptoms, (2) that the patient is in fact removed from home, and (3) that an abundance of nutritious food is supplied, three things must further be observed.

The patient must not have too much sympathy. This, friends and relations will always bestow. Physical care is one thing; wise diversion is another; but manifestations of a strong personal affection are, as a rule, contra-indicated in insanity. Nothing is more noticeable than the egotism of the insane, their tendency to introspection, their exaggerated and fantastic sense of their own importance, the readiness with which they believe themselves to be sufferers above all others. In order to starve out this peculiar disposition, and cause it to perish by inanition, it is usually wise to consign them to the care of entire strangers.

Again: many of the insane manifest remarkable self-control under observation. They conceal their real thoughts. To see them as they really are, they must be observed at moments when they are unconscious of notice, and taken, when they are more than ordinarily exalted or depressed, in the very act. For this, it is important that the physician should come in upon them frequently and without warning, yet in such a way as not to excite or alarm them. He must cultivate a personal familiarity with them, and learn to recognize all their Protean moods and tenses, which it is very difficult for a non-resident physician of an institution to attain.

Once more: special familiarity with insanity in the nurse, as well as the physician, is very desirable; and implicit obedience, on the part of the nurse, to the physician's orders, is essential. A good attendant should be keen-eyed, intelligent, quick, kind, accurate in reporting symptoms noted, even-tempered, and firm, with more or less ability to exercise control when necessary. Such nursing cannot commonly be had in any private family.

We therefore accept without question the statement so often made in reports of insane hospitals, that the importance of bringing an insane patient to the institution immediately on the determination of the existence of the disease

cannot be too strongly emphasized. And, with some allowance for exaggeration, we are prepared to believe that the usual statistical formula closely approximates the truth: "Of patients admitted within three months of the first occurrence of an attack of insanity, 75 per cent. recover; within six months, 50 per cent.; within nine months, 25 per cent.; and, after twelve months, so few, that it may almost be said, none at all."

KANKAKEE.

The *Journal of Insanity*, in its editorial comment on "The Colony System in Michigan," remarks incidentally:

The cottage system at Kankakee has attracted the most attention among the various methods of caring for the chronic insane, and promises to be the one most generally adopted.

What the *Journal* refers to, when it says that the careful investigations of Dr. O'Reilley, the Inspector of Prisons and Public Charities of the Province of Ontario, show "certain inherent difficulties in construction and management," we do not know. The same might be said of any establishment on the face of the earth. We are aware that Dr. O'Reilley, in his report for 1885, said:

In June, I visited Kankakee, Illinois, where we found the cottage system existing, pure and simple. Twelve hundred patients are lodged in cottages, ranging in size from a capacity of thirty up to one hundred beds. We made very thorough enquiries into the cost of buildings and administration, and were not very well satisfied, and I believe I am violating no confidence when I say that most of those engaged in the experiment are not well satisfied either.

We know of no one connected with the Kankakee hospital who said any thing which will bear the construction placed upon it by Dr. O'Reilley, and a letter addressed to him asking what basis he had for his remark remains unanswered to this day.

The hospital at Kankakee has attracted much attention, and is destined to attract more. But it is not understood. No doubt an impression exists that its originators and friends regard it as in itself an ideal, whereas it was meant to be a protest, and it would have accomplished its purpose, were it to stand to the end of time without imitation elsewhere.

The situation, at the time when this experiment was inaugurated, may be briefly stated. The Association of Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane (which held its first meeting in 1844), adopted, in 1851, a series of propositions embodying the views then held as to the proper method of constructing hospitals for the insane. From the language of the fifth proposition* it is apparent that the association had in mind institutions designed for the accommodation of not more than 200 or 250 patients. The leading features of the plan recommended were: a main central building with wings; eight distinct wards for each sex; each ward to be complete in itself, with its own parlor, dining-room, etc.; and single lodging-rooms for patients, eight feet wide by ten feet in length, and twelve feet high, opening into a corridor; but each ward might have one associated dormitory (of limited capacity, since the plan did not contemplate more than 15 patients to a ward). It should further be said that, when these propositions were adopted, the idea of a hospital for the cure of insanity, rather than that of an asylum for the retention of chronic and incurable lunatics, was prominently in the minds of their authors and advocates. Neither is there any evidence to show that they could or did foresee the rapid and amazing increase in the number of the insane which has taken place in the last thirty-five years.

But the expansion of the system of institutions for the insane, under the gentle stimulus given to it by the organ-

ization of the association, exceeded all anticipation. It has been estimated that, in the year 1851, when the propositions were agreed to, there were not thirty institutions in the country, and that they had an average capacity of caring for less than 150 patients each, so that the total number of patients under treatment at any one time probably did not exceed 4,000. When the census of 1880 was taken, on the other hand, there were more than 40,000 patients enumerated in about 140 institutions. So rapidly have the conditions of the problem changed, and are still changing.

Nevertheless, in practice, architects and medical superintendents alike adhered, with what can only be fairly characterized as a bigoted tenacity, to propositions originally designed to meet an entirely different state of affairs. Whether an institution was erected for the accommodation of two hundred patients or eight hundred or one thousand, no departure from the prescribed type of construction was tolerated. The centre buildings grew, the wings grew, the wards grew, the number of patients grew—but there was no growth of ideas manifest within the association; at least, every attempt to express ideas not in harmony with the promulgated creed of 1851 was met with the sternest opposition. One was reminded of the scene at the passages of the river Jordan, in the time of the Hebrew judges: "When those Ephraimites which were escaped said: 'Let me go over,' the men of Gilead said: 'Art thou an Ephraimite?' If he said, 'Nay,' then said they unto him, 'Say now Shibboleth;' and he said, 'Sibboleth,' for he could not frame to pronounce it right. Then they took him and slew him."

This was the state of things when it was proposed, at Kankakee, to have a new departure. Our institutions for the insane were no longer hospitals, as in 1851, but had come to be both hospitals and asylums, with an immense preponderance of chronic over curable cases. In consequence of their gradual change of character, there had accumulated, beneath their sheltering roofs, a vast number of what are usually called (and in fact are) "harmless" lunatics, who can be well cared for without the ponderous paraphernalia of bolts and bars required for other lunatics who are violent, destructive, dangerous, or erratic. They contained also a very considerable proportion of "pauper demented," whose sensibilities are blunted, and who retain but a dim appreciation even of the proprieties of life, much less of its refinements. Yet, under the influence of the "propositions," the work of building palaces for paupers, with single lodging-rooms, eight by ten feet in size, went bravely on. Not only so; we continued to build prisons for those who demanded no such iron restraints. The association of superintendents was permeated, yes, saturated, with the conviction that "there are no harmless lunatics," and that the strong hand of power must be made to bear heavily even upon the drivelling imbecile who lies limp upon the floor, unable or unwilling so much as to attend to the ordinary calls of nature.

At this very time the insane were being massed in our poorhouses and jails, where they were the victims of neglect, brutality, and ignorance—poorly fed, poorly clothed, suffering from heat in summer and cold in winter, rotting in their own filth, dying without consolation or even proper medical care, often loaded with chains, governed by intimidation, and locked up in solitary cells for security; we have even known of their being built into rooms with no door to admit of the entrance or exit of a human being, but their food was handed to them through a hole in the wall, and the walls and floors washed by a stream of water from a rubber hose-pipe. A process of assorting went on, by which as many of the insane as could be provided for in palaces were taken from the county farms, but the rest were left to perish; and the more magnificent the provision made for the fortunate few, the greater the proportion of the wretched without their gates. It can never be too strongly asserted, nor too frequently reiterated, that the policy of building palaces for the pauper insane is virtual murder.

* "The highest number that can with propriety be treated in one building is 250, while 200 is a preferable maximum." See also the second proposition, in which it is said that these propositions apply only to institutions for 200 patients, unless otherwise mentioned.

Those who enjoy the comforts of a palatial abode may not see it, as it forces itself upon the consciences of others, whose official duty requires them to inspect the common almshouses and witness the suffering of the victims of this homicidal policy, which we here condemn and denounce as it deserves.

It was evident that the reform demanded could not be effected by the minority within the association; it must come from the outside. It came. Kankakee, as we have said, was a protest against exalting a formula into an idol; against a style of building which was extravagant, because unnecessarily costly; against the endless repetition, in brick and mortar, of one stereotyped pattern of a house adapted to the necessities of some lunatics and utterly opposed to the comfort and well-being of others; against prison bars and locked doors for those who do not need them; against the aggregation of the insane by hundreds under a single roof; against single lodging-rooms for the great majority of the pauper insane; against uniformity and internal completeness in every hospital ward, regardless of the class of patients by whom it is occupied; against spending more than legislatures felt that they could afford, on one portion of the insane, while leaving others in misery because of such expenditure; against the magnificence of our mammoth central buildings for officers; against every thing in the prevailing system of architectural construction, organization, and discipline, which could needlessly add to the burden resting upon any insane man or woman, wherever found, in an institution or outside of all institutions.

It mattered not in what form the protest should be made, so that it was only emphatic enough to arouse attention. But the logic of the situation demanded that the corridors of the "propositions" should be abandoned, that the wards constructed should not be on the same pattern, that bars should, as far as possible, be left off the windows, that associated should be substituted for single dormitories, that the typical building in echelon should be broken up into its original elements and disappear from view; in a word, that every thing about the place should suggest certain ideas to the officers, the employés, the visitors, and the patients themselves, namely: more freedom, more occupation, a nearer approach to the ordinary conditions of natural life, greater variety, and, above all, what Dr. Dewey has termed "differentiation" in the treatment of the insane, and what has been called by another "graduated" restraint, that is, just as much restraint for each individual patient as is indispensable or serviceable in his case, and no more. Kankakee is a protest against uniformity, because uniformity means the sacrifice of one patient to the real or fancied needs of another.

So we are brought back to our first statement, that Kankakee is not in itself an ideal. How could it be? While there is in it nothing which is absolutely novel, nothing which may not be seen abroad, nothing which has not been recommended and advocated by American masters in the ranks of the profession, the combination of the elements is in a certain sense original. It was an experiment, and the influence of precedent and of opposition may be traced in many of its arrangements; it is to some extent a compromise; if it had been more boldly conceived and executed, the result would perhaps have been better than it is. It took shape under the pressure of circumstances, among which note must be taken of the reluctance of the legislature of Illinois to scatter institutions or bring them near to the people. That body has always set itself against the creation of new institutions; it prefers to enlarge those which exist; yet the tide of insanity is rising rapidly, and the insane must be cared for somewhere and somehow. Kankakee, with its 1,600 patients, is too large—larger than any one institution should be, however planned. But its size is not due to any views entertained by its originators: the Illinois legislature would have it so, whether or not. What its friends claim for it is that, even so, it is better than to have

the insane on the county farms, in such conditions as have always prevailed in Illinois; and better than it would be to have 1,600 insane men and women under one roof. Is such a modest claim as this unreasonable? They claim that it has shown that the insane may be comfortably housed at little more than one half of what it has been customary to expend upon them, and therefore that nearly or quite twice as many of them may be provided for with a given amount of money; that the ratio of suicides, of accidents, of escapes, is no greater under the detached-ward system than under any other, notwithstanding unbarred windows, open doors, and a liberal use of the parole; that many of the arrangements heretofore supposed, in this country at least, to be indispensable, are in fact unnecessary, if not injurious; that patients may not only dine in large, common dining-rooms, but go out-of-doors to their meals, to chapel, and to the amusement-hall; that they can bathe and change their clothing outside of the wards: that many of them can sleep in large, associated dormitories without injury to themselves or others; that square or irregular-shaped day-rooms are quite as comfortable as long corridors with cross alcoves, and more easily governed by attendants; that very much less restraint of any sort is required for the insane of all classes, taken together, than many have believed. To have accomplished this is surely to have accomplished something, and it is worth what it has cost in misapprehension and misrepresentation.

But the spirit which gave birth to this experiment would be grieved, rather than gratified, by any suggestion that, in this form of organization of an institution for the insane, the ultimate and highest point attainable has been reached. Not so. It is not even true that in all particulars it is an advance upon the previous system. The advantages claimed for it have been purchased by the sacrifice of other advantages, which some esteem more highly. On this, as on all other subjects, let there be liberty of thought and expression. Many men, many minds. Liberty is the price of harmony. But, by destroying the veneration felt for an idol, it has removed the former barrier to progress, and opened the wide and free path for other innovators. Already the spirit of innovation and improvement is abroad in the land, as is apparent by the discussion of what the *Journal of Insanity* denominates "the colony system," the advocacy of which, a few years ago, would have been accounted as rank heresy. We hope for much from the prevalence of this spirit. Yet our hopes are mingled with fears, lest stupid changes should be made for the mere sake of change, without real improvement. It will be our aim, in future numbers of the RECORD, to bring the changes which may be proposed or made hereafter to the three tests of utility, economy, and humanity. For the path of progress lies in the direction of a simultaneous lifting of the burden of insanity (which can never be or become aught else than a grievous burden), as far as practicable, from the shoulders both of the sane and of the insane, but especially of those who have lost the power of self-help and self-direction.

Show a man where he can earn a dollar by honest work and you have done him a service, if he has the spirit of a man left in him, but build a soup kitchen for him, "grub stake" him periodically, lend him money, teach him in the darkest night there is always a light in the window, a fire on the hearth, and food for the asking, and you have an incurable mendicant on your hands for the rest of his days. There is no doubt that the knowledge of the existence of an inebriate's home does not discourage the victim of alcoholism to stop drinking to excess. A free hospital is a good thing, but it doubtless does not deter an animal man from excess, to know that, if he makes himself sick through indulgence, he is sure of good care at the public cost; it does not discourage professional begging to know that, if banished from the streets, there are almshouses on golden hinges turning. The argument against the French system of inspection of brothels is that the increased precautions against contagion only make the bold and reckless rakes still bolder. In other words, the efforts of humanity to interfere with the inexorable consequences of sin, to help the survival of those who are clearly fit to die, because unfit to live, have the effect of increasing rather than abating great social evils.—*Oregonian.*

THE ALABAMA PRISON SYSTEM.

By the terms of an act passed in February, 1885, the State of Alabama abolished the offices of warden and inspectors of the penitentiary, and created a board of inspectors of convicts. The duties of warden devolve upon the president of the board.

The first biennial report of the new board, which lies on the table before us, as we write, is one of the most entertaining and instructive documents which we have recently read. The inspectors have evidently tried to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth; and in this respect their report is in refreshing contrast to some which we have examined.

The Alabama penitentiary is commonly known, within the limits of the State as "The Walls." It was established at Wetumpka, in 1839, by an act of the legislature, and the buildings and machinery (which were partially destroyed by fire in 1873) are said to have cost over \$100,000. It contains cells for 208 prisoners, but they are unfit for habitation. Many of the buildings are greatly in want of repairs and are gradually going to ruin. Last spring, the Coosa river overflowed the whole interior of the prison, which has now been practically abandoned as useless.

In 1873, the State bought, of Thomas Williams, for \$50,000, a farm of 2,000 acres situated on the Tallapoosa river, in Elmore county, nine miles from Montgomery, for which bonds were issued in payment; but, by a subsequent act, the bonds were returned and cancelled, and, in place of them, Mr. Williams accepted the services of 100 convicts for eight years. This "State Farm" is in the heart of an immense swamp, with ponds and sloughs all over it, and is as sickly as can well be. In April, 1886, every foot of it was under water, much of the stock was drowned, and the guards and convicts were rescued from a similar fate, with much risk and heavy expense by a party sent from Montgomery. The place was again overflowed in July, and the crop on 180 of the 300 acres in cultivation was destroyed. In August, the health of the convicts became so bad, that they were all removed to a more salubrious locality in the pine forest north of Wetumpka.

The criminal code recognizes two classes of convicts—those sentenced to the penitentiary, and those sentenced to "hard labor for the county." The latter system originated in 1866, when there were numerous convictions for minor offences, in which the defendants were unable to secure the fines and costs, and the expense of keeping them in jail was so great as to become a serious burden upon the State treasury. It was intended to relieve the treasury. It was also made to include persons convicted of felonies, but it was supposed that only cases of the minor felonies would be sentenced to this form of punishment, which, it was thought, would be less severe than confinement in the penitentiary.

The inspectors of convicts inspect the camps in which both are found; but they have no power, in the case of county prisoners, to correct any abuses which may exist.

State Convicts.

Authority to work convicts outside of the walls was first given in 1866, and since that time the present system has been developed by degrees. From 1866 to 1872 the penitentiary was leased to contractors for the sum of *five dollars* and the State made a loan of \$15,000 to the lessees, which, it is believed, has never been repaid. In 1872 the State resumed control. Whoever is interested in the details of the history of this prison, will find them in a special message of Governor Cobb to the Alabama legislature, in 1882—an admirable State paper, which is reprinted as an appendix to the report before us.

At the present time the State convicts are leased to four contractors, at three points, as follows:

Lessee.	Location.	On hand, Oct. 1, 1886.				Average.	
		Total.	Colored.		White.	Age.	Sentence.
			M.	F.	M. F.		
Comer & McCurdy.	Pratt Mines	192	156	5	31	28.3	10.6 years.
Coal & Iron Company.	Pratt Mines	166	133	2	31	27.7	8.3 "
J. F. B. Jackson . . .	Blount Springs	66	42	3	21	30.4	9.2 "
L. D. Rouse	Wetumpka	66	62	4		31.3	10.1 "
Thomas Williams . . .	Wetumpka	50	46	4		28.4	6.1 "
Total leased		540	439	18	83	28.7	9.2 years.
Unassigned		19	13	4	2	39.5	12.9 "
Aggregate		559	452	22	85	29.0	9.3 years.

In computing the average length of sentences, 88 sentences for life are omitted, or about one in seven, of which all were for murder, except two for arson and twenty-two for rape or its equivalent. On the other hand, we have included four sentences for 99 years, two for 75, one for 60, four for 50, one for 42, four for 40, one for 39, two for 35, five for 30, six for 25, two for 21, and fifteen for 20 years. These long sentences are a feature of southern criminal jurisprudence, not peculiar to this State. The large majority of them are for murder. It is worthy of mention that, of the 559 prisoners included in the foregoing table, 146 were convicted of murder, 27 of manslaughter, and 37 of attempts to commit murder—in all 210 homicides or attempted homicides, or nearly 40 per cent. Of the white prisoners 44, or more than half were guilty of homicide.

The convicts at Pratt Mines are all engaged in mining coal. The inspectors say:

No man can go into a mine for the first time without being, as it were, dazed by the new and startling scenes around him—the shrill screams of the signal whistles, the clang of the pumps, the shouts of the trammers as they urge their mules, the rush and roar of the cars as they seem to fly down the slopes, and the blackness of indescribable darkness only made more horrible by the dim lamps scattered here and there through the gloom. It is simply impossible for a new man to work with such surroundings; but in a few days things begin to appear more natural. Every thing falls into its place, he begins to feel at home, and after a month he usually commences to learn his business, and finds his lot a tolerable one, and his work nothing like as hard as he expected.

A number of medical reports are attached, in which the health of convicts engaged in mining is discussed from opposite points of view; but the opinion of the State physician is that it is more or less affected by powder-smoke, stagnant water, coal-dust, and marsh-gas, for which the remedies are thorough drainage and ventilation, and shooting the blasts the last thing before leaving the mine in the evening. The physician employed by the lessees recommended the erection of a stockade enclosing ten acres of ground, and the laying-out within it of a town of fifty cabins, to accommodate six inmates each; rations should be issued twice a day, and the prisoners permitted to cook them as they please; there should be a separate hospital building, suitable provision made for bathing, etc. Dr. Lewis, of Coalburg, (where county prisoners are worked), suggests that convicts should be allowed to spend their leisure time, between sunrise and sunset, including their Sundays, in the yard; that they should be forbidden to sleep or lie about in the mines, where they are always exposed to a draft; and that they should not be permitted to drink mine water, nor worked more than 35 or 40 feet beyond the air.

At Blount Springs prisoners are worked in a quarry and upon a plantation; at Wetumpka on plantations. The inspectors pronounce the prison built by Colonel Williams at the "Home Place" to be "the best arranged, the best furnished, and most comfortable prison in the State, if not in the United States."

It is claimed that, under the thorough system of inspec-

tion inaugurated by the board, the lessee plan has been greatly improved and divested of many of its former horrors; but one can read between the lines of the report that the inspectors are fettered by a want of full power to correct abuses, even in the State camps. The number of State convicts handled during the two years from October 1, 1884, to September 30, 1886, was 876, of whom 48 died and 28 escaped; the average number was 250. The annual death-rate, therefore, was 2.75 per cent. on the whole number, or 9.6 per cent. on the average number; while the percentage of escapes was a little more than half these figures. The inspectors think that the lessees should pay a forfeit for every escape, whether owing to negligence or not.

The principal argument for the maintenance of the present system is, of course, financial. From March 1, 1885, to the close of the fiscal year 1886 (eighteen months), the net receipts, over and above all expenses, were \$68,455.94, of which \$49,492.99 was earned during that time. Probably no other State in the Union can make as good a financial showing in this regard. At this rate a convict is worth to the State of Alabama \$132 a year. Since the contractors pay this for him, he must be worth still more to them, for they also maintain and clothe him at their own cost.

The same opposition manifests itself to convict-labor here as elsewhere, particularly against the employment of convicts in coal-mining. But, of 2,225,000 tons of coal mined in Alabama, in 1885, convicts produced about 401,000 tons, and free labor about 1,824,000 tons. At the coal-mines the ex-convicts are the most blatant about the rights of free labor, forgetting that, if they had not been convicts, they would never have been miners.

Hard Labor for the County.

The system of hard labor for the county is not simply penal servitude. The inspectors say:

Until the act of 1883, little or no attention was paid to county convicts, and, if half that we have heard is true, they suffered horrors shocking to every instinct of humanity. When the contractor, upon receiving them, paid up the costs, they were abandoned to their fate, with no law but his will. They were slaves without the restraints that were thrown around the slave-owner by association, by society, and by interest; and the celebrated horrors of the "middle passage" are rivalled by the stories told of their treatment. Few knew, and fewer cared, what became of them. They were kept as long as, and discharged whenever, the contractor pleased. In 1883 we found many held over their time, and some whose existence was unknown to the officers of the counties from which they came. It may be thought that there was much exaggeration, and there doubtless was, but some of them came under our own observation, and there are few stories of fiction not rivalled by the fate of Dick Bankhead. Until 1883, when the president of the board commenced it at the capitol, there was no record kept of these people. Not even in the probate offices of the counties where they were convicted, was any thing like a record kept, until a few years ago. We have had application made to us to ascertain what has become of persons sentenced to hard labor prior to 1883, of whom there is absolutely no trace: they have disappeared as completely as if the earth had opened and swallowed them. The very fact of their existence, except by the few at the humble home who still wait and look in vain for him who does not come, has been forgotten. This system, if such it can be called, was a blot upon the reputation of the State, and its abuses were so outrageous that citizens of the highest character have been known to declare that, if they should meet an escaping convict, instead of arresting him, they would aid him to get off. Just such a feeling cruelty is sure to beget. We forget that a man is a criminal in sympathizing with his sufferings.

The exhibits for the counties show 3,088 convicts of this class handled during the two years: deaths, 100; escapes, 67; discharges, 2,017; on hand, September 30, 1886, 904. Those on hand were leased to nineteen different contractors. How many of them are engaged in mining, and how many are employed on plantations, or in saw-mills, or in the construction of railroads, is not stated; nor the average number. Assuming the average to be 900, the annual death-rate has been 5.56 per cent., or about twice as high as among the State convicts; while the percentage of escapes has been 3.72, or nearly four times as great. It is evident that the board is dissatisfied with the condition and treatment of many of them, and it recommends, very sen-

sibly, that the State should assume the direct charge and responsibility of them.

The control of the county convicts should be in the State and exercised through State officers, and all laws applicable to State convicts should also be applicable to county convicts. There is neither sense nor justice in anything else, for they are punished for violations of the same laws of the same State.

This remark has a wider scope than the limits of Alabama.

It has been proposed to employ the county prisoners in making public roads. The fallacy of this scheme is its impracticability, which is well exposed:

It will be an excellent plan, if two objections can be overcome.

The first is the difficulty in taking care of the men. The frequent changes of place that would be necessary, would render it impossible to provide proper prisons, and the want of them would result in sickness, death, and consequent pecuniary loss. Railroad camps in this State have been, with few exceptions, "slaughter-pens" for convicts. The only experience we had with them was on the Georgia Pacific Railroad in 1883; they died at the rate of 40 per cent. per annum, and the miserable condition of the survivors, when removed, excited the commiseration of all who saw them. Men might do very well in tents, in good weather; but those who remember the numerous diseases incident to camp life in the army, will doubt the wisdom of risking this plan. And it would take a large guard force at night, to prevent escapes from a camp: it is probable that they would occur more frequently even than now.

The second objection is that the cost of feeding and clothing the convicts, of buying and feeding mules, of keeping on hand wagons and tools, of medical attention and medicines, and the hire of a superintendent and guards, would foot up a total expense much heavier than is anticipated.

We have not space left, in which to speak at length of the testimony and findings in the cases of Alex. Crews and Jere Ford.

Alex. Crews was delivered, in the dead of winter, at Clayton, with three others, to the contractor, who brought them to Montgomery, where they were kept, handcuffed and the four chained together, in the colored waiting-room at the depot all night, with no opportunity to lie down. The next day they were compelled to walk 22 miles, through a sleet-storm, without sufficient food, and with no chance to warm themselves by a fire, though they might have been carried by train within four miles of the lessee's plantation. On the farm Crews was frequently and sometimes cruelly whipped, exposed during most of the very cold weather, starved, and worked when he was sick. He remained but 30 days, and the day before he was discharged, he was knocked down by a guard, with a spade or shovel, and struck with it while on the ground. Five days later, he was dead.

Jere Ford claimed to be sick. The contractor thought him to be malingering. Apparently he was too ill to do his work, which was in a brick-yard, whereupon the contractor "picked up a piece of plank about two feet long, four inches wide, and one fourth of an inch thick, and struck him several times with it upon his body." This was before dinner. After dinner, the contractor "sent to a harness-maker's shop and procured a piece of leather twenty-six inches long, two inches wide, and three sixteenths of an inch thick, which was fastened upon a wooden handle about fifteen inches long and half an inch thick. He then tied Jere's arms around a tree, fastened his legs to the tree with a rope, and struck him 30 or 40 blows upon his naked person, some of which drew blood. Jere was then released and went back into the pit, where he worked for a little while. About four o'clock, he was stripped and bucked, and about the same number of blows inflicted. A short time afterward he was again whipped, and, "from the evidence before us," say the inspectors, "although there is some conflict upon this point, we think he received 100 lashes in all, during the afternoon." That night he died. The contractor was bound over to await the action of the grand jury.

We approve of nearly every recommendation made by this board. If the system is to be continued (and we suppose that it must be, for the present), it can at least be better administered than it has been. We thoroughly agree with

them that "whites and blacks, and males and females, should be kept in separate prisons: especially, white women ought not to go to a prison where there are negroes." On this point, Dr. Lewis well observes:

Women should not be confined in the same prison as men, nor even admitted in the same enclosure. They are the cause of most of the quarrelling between the men, besides having a tendency to make them harder to manage, in addition to which I do not think any of the convict prisons are prepared to take charge of them when sick—having no separate hospital, etc., without which it is quite impossible to give them efficient medical attention. Above all, white women should not be confined in the same enclosure as negro men. No one who is not brought in constant observation of this abomination can realize the degrading effect it has even upon the lower class of white women that usually compose convicts. I am satisfied that there is not a right-feeling white man in the State, who, after seeing the working of this custom, would not denounce it.

CALIFORNIA STATE PENOLOGICAL COMMISSION.

This commission, which was appointed "to inquire into the subject of penology as applicable to the condition of prison affairs" within the State of California, has, after more than a year of investigation, correspondence, and study, made its final report in a pamphlet of 167 pages. The appendix, which will contain the correspondence, is not yet in type; but in a short time a large edition of the report and appendix will be issued for general distribution. Copies may be had on application to Robert T. Devlin, secretary.

The report is divided into twenty chapters containing 249 sections, and is a dictionary of quotations, well selected and systematically arranged, on pretty much all the special topics covered by the general term "penology."

The conclusions of the commission are as follows:

That it is the duty, as well as the interest, of the State to provide for the maintenance and education of all dependent children, before the evil influences by which they are constantly surrounded are able to effect their ruin.*

That a State reform school for juvenile offenders is a necessity, and that it should be on the family or cottage plan.†

That there should be a separate reformatory for girls.

That there is much of merit in the "indeterminate" sentence, so-called; and that, when applied, as in New York, at Elmira, to first offenders, between the ages of sixteen and thirty, or to juvenile offenders in a reform or industrial school, it will give the best results. But when its application to the entire prison system is considered, there are practical objections to it, which render it unwise to give it other than a limited operation.

That the jury, in a criminal trial, should have the right to fix and determine the maximum sentence to be imposed in any given case.

That the habitual and incorrigible criminal should be deprived of freedom during the rest of his natural life.

That prisoners should be entitled to conditional liberation on probable proof of amendment while in prison.

That an agency for aiding discharged convicts should be created and maintained.

That the English system of police supervision of discharged prisoners is worthy of imitation in this country.

That courts should have the power to suspend sentence.

That a graded system of prisons would be in the interest of good government and of the best prison management.

That the management of prisons should be strictly non-partisan.

That prison officers should be specially trained in the proper discharge of their duties.

That California needs a "State Police."

That, in cities, police matrons should be employed at police stations.

That the present system, in California, of referring applications to the governor for pardon to the State board of prison directors is wise, and should be continued.

That productive labor in prisons is a vital condition of success in reforming convicts, and is the corner-stone of any practical and humane prison system.

That it should be the aim of all prison authorities, while attempting to secure profitable results, to employ prison labor in such ways as will interfere to the smallest extent with free labor.

That prisons ought not to be expected to be self-supporting.*

That insane criminals should be separated from those who are not insane; neither should they be sent to asylums for the non-criminal insane; suitable provision should be made for them in one of the State prisons.

That the county jail system is an abomination; district prisons should be established for the confinement of convicted misdemeanants; houses of detention should be so constructed as to admit of no communication between prisoners awaiting trial.

That the system of "boarding-out" children seems to work well in those countries where it prevails; but that it is doubtful whether it would be successful in a sparsely populated State.

The legislation proposed, as the concrete result of so much research and reflection, is embodied in three drafts of bills for statutes: one to establish a State Industrial Home for Boys; one to adopt a parole system; and one to aid discharged prisoners.

This commission has done its work well, and nearly all the positions taken by it are sound. The least satisfactory portion of the report is that which refers to the parole system and the indeterminate sentence. A distinction is made between the law governing Elmira and the Ohio law, the force of which we do not clearly apprehend. Elmira receives a qualified approval, but the Ohio system is heartily commended. Why this discrimination? The two are nearly identically the same, so far as we can see. The bill for an act submitted for the consideration of the general assembly, on this subject, is very inadequate and incomplete; and there appears to be an inherent inconsistency in adopting the parole system and at the same time retaining the commutation or good-time law, for which the parole system, rightly understood, is a substitute. The proposal to empower *juries* to determine sentences for crime, and fix the maximum, is also at utter variance with the theory of the parole system, which cannot be satisfactorily administered, except under an absolutely indeterminate sentence, or under uniform maximum sentences prescribed by statute and not left to the whim of any judge or jury. Neither do we like the proposal to retain the system of requiring the *prison directors* to act as a board of pardons. We agree with the opinion elsewhere expressed by the commission itself, that under the parole system "the exercise of the pardoning power might be confined to cases where the innocence of the prisoner is, subsequently to his conviction, made to appear." The less the prison board has to do with applications for pardon, the more easily and efficiently it will administer the parole system, which, we sincerely trust, the State of California will adopt in some form.

It is estimated that there are not less than 80,000 persons in Great Britain who are constantly suffering from consumption.

The sentimental is dangerous in piety, in morality, in literature, in everything.—JOSEPH ROUX.

The practice of religion is founded on cleanliness.—MOHAMMED.

* The Michigan State Public School, at Coldwater, is recommended as a model for imitation in California.

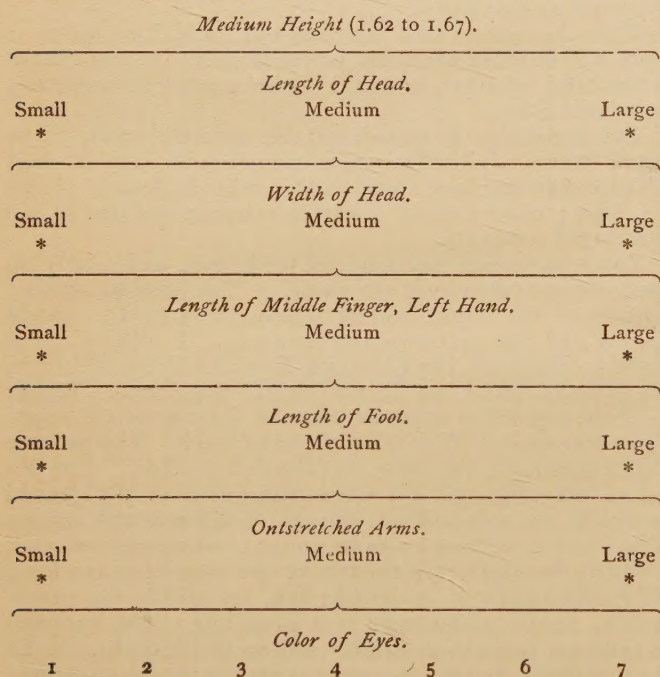
† The commission looks with favor upon the establishment, at some time in the future, of a nautical school for boys, in which to train seamen.

* California has an industry—the manufacture of jute goods—which, under ordinarily favorable circumstances, will give employment to nearly all the convicts at San Quentin, yield a handsome profit, aid the farming interests of the States, and not interfere to any appreciable extent with free labor. The commission suggests that San Francisco needs a sea-wall, and that the material for it could be cut by the convicts at Folsom, where there are immense and inexhaustible granite beds.

THE IDENTIFICATION OF CONVICTS.

Major R. W. McClaughry, Secretary of the Wardens' Association, has issued a circular, in which he suggests that the association adopt the method of identifying prisoners invented by M. Alphonse Bertillon, of Paris, which is said to be in use in Russia and Japan, as well as in France. Having entered into correspondence with M. Bertillon, and received a reply from him, the merits of the system (which is highly recommended also by M. Herbertte, Director-General of Prisons in France), have deeply impressed him. It consists in a series of measurements, including the height, length, and width of the head, length of the middle finger of the left hand, length of the foot, and the distance between the tips of the fingers of both hands when the arms are outstretched, together with the color of the eyes. For each of the measurements referred to, three grades are defined. Each successive measurement is a subdivision of the preceding one. The shade and color of the eye constitute the last subdivision, and are distinguished by M. Bertillon into seven grades.

The following diagram may make this somewhat clearer :



Each of the subdivisions marked * to be subdivided in exactly the same way as the one in the same category that has the subdivisions indicated.

It will be noticed that 10,000 subjects, when the measurements have been taken, are here distinctly subdivided in $3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 7 = 5,103$ divisions, with (if an even subdivision were possible in practice) less than two subjects in each.

The reduction to further subdivisions can, if necessary, be carried on almost *ad infinitum*, by additional measurements, etc., not considered in the diagram. The measured subjects being represented by tickets or cards, containing their anthropometric description and photographs, filed in cases and envelopes, in accordance with the above diagram, it is evident that the identification from a later description of the same subject can be attained with no more trouble and in no more time than it takes to find a word in a dictionary, or the name of an individual in one of the new improved indexes of names (Schlicht's, for instance), *always provided* that the measurements have been taken absolutely correct.

As to photographs accompanying the anthropometric description, M. Bertillon considers them valuable, but not absolutely essential, adjuncts to his system. They must be taken invariably on a uniform plan, and of a uniform size, to be useful and reliable.

The minute description of marks and scars, and their exact location, is not lost sight of in his system, as leading to the final and positive identification of a measured subject.

Major McClaughry advises the postponement of any positive action in the direction of the by-law providing for an exchange of cards between prisons until the meeting of the

wardens at Toronto, next September. At that time he will be prepared to explain the system and give a practical demonstration of it. It will be necessary meanwhile to translate from the French language, and adapt to American use, the rather extensive pamphlets giving a description of it and instruction in its application. In his opinion, however, the delay will result in a gain rather than a loss, since the system "involves much less labor and expense than the one proposed at Detroit, for the reason that the keeping of a large assortment of descriptive cards at each prison will be rendered necessary. Each person will be notified, from the central office, on receipt of its list for the preceding month, what persons contained in it are on record as recidivists, and where they have served."

CAUSATION OF CRIME.

Mr. Henry E. Highton, in a legal argument, in a late criminal trial in San Francisco, gave the following summary of some of the causes of social disorder and corruption :

First—The misdirection of natural ambition in boys and girls through the vanity of parents.

Second—The neglect of home discipline and training.

Third—Education beyond the point essential for good citizenship, without direction into well-defined industrial channels.

Fourth—The lack of wholesome regulation of the intercourse between the sexes.

Fifth—Intellectual pride, which disregards the strict ordinances of religion, but provides no substitutes for them.

Sixth—The clogging of the avenues to remunerative labor, and the hostile attitude of labor and capital, producing the worst forms of social discontent.

Seventh—Corrupt politics under the control of bossism.

Eighth—Indifference to reputation and the dissemination of sensational and debauching literature through a portion of the public press.

Ninth—Intense selfishness, concentration upon their own business, and disregard of all law and of all civil duty which seem to them to conflict with their own interests, by influential citizens, whose personal lives are respectable and in some degree useful.

Tenth—Inequalities in the administration of public justice; the intrusion into trials, directly or indirectly, of personal influences or temporary popular feeling, which lead to acquittals or convictions without regard to the facts or the law; the absence of uniform and impartial methods in the treatment of persons accused of crimes; undue respect or disrespect for men, as distinguished from the steady and persistent application of principles.

THE FRENCH PRISON SOCIETY.

The attention of all concerned is hereby called to the fact that Senator Béranger and M. Fernand Desportes, president and secretary of the *Société Générale des Prisons*, have issued a circular requesting the editor of the RECORD, among others of their foreign correspondents, to procure for the use of the society :

(1) A copy of every American statute relating to criminal jurisprudence and prison administration, enacted within the past year.

(2) A statement of the appropriations made for the support of each prison in the United States.

(3) A copy of every recent publication on the prison question, whether in the form of a report, a pamphlet, a book, or even a newspaper article, or article in a magazine or review.

(4) A list of all American periodicals which are specially devoted to this question (including, of course, the papers printed in prisons and reformatory institutions).

Will wardens of prisons and superintendents of reform and industrial schools please accept this notice as personal, and forward the information desired (before you forget it) to M. ERNEST PASSEZ, 217 Rue St.-Honoré, Paris, France?

M. Passez is proficient in the English language, and would be grateful if the officers of penal and reformatory institutions in America would enter into direct correspondence with him, without formality, in the interest of the

studies pursued by this admirable association of learned and devoted men.

We again commend to our readers the excellent Bulletin of the French Society, which may be procured by sending the price of subscription (which is 18 francs a year), to the publishers, MM. A. Chaix et Cie, 20, Rue Bergère, Paris.

THE CHILDREN OF THE STATE.

The following propositions respecting the care of children who have a claim upon the State appear in the last biennial report of the Illinois Board of Public Charities :

1. The association of children with adult paupers in almshouses is on every account to be deprecated.
2. The commitment of children to poorhouses in cases where any other disposition can be made of them should, therefore, be forbidden by law.
3. All children who are inmates of almshouses should be removed from them at the earliest moment practicable.
4. Institution life of any kind for children is an evil which should be reduced to a minimum, both in respect of the number of children cared for in institutions, and of the length of time that they remain in them.
5. The best place for any child, if it can be procured for it, is a home in some private family.
6. It is better to pay a reasonable price for a child's board in a private family than to maintain it in an institution ; it is better to indenture a child than to board it out ; it is better that a child should be adopted than indentured.
7. No system of placing out children is complete, or can be well and satisfactorily administered, which does not include supervision of them by an agent, or agent, whose special duty it is to visit them at stated intervals, and at the same time to make diligent search for homes in which other dependent children may be boarded, indentured, or adopted, as the case may be.
8. It is desirable as far as possible to enlist the service and co-operation of unpaid voluntary visitors for this work.
9. The greater the number of visitors, and the more thoroughly they are distributed throughout the State, the nearer they will come to the children to be cared for, and the larger will probably be the degree of success attending their efforts.
10. An institution of some sort is an indispensable adjunct of any efficient system of placing out children, for two reasons : first, because it serves as a sort of receiving and distributing depot for them where they can be temporarily retained until homes can be found for them, and at the same time prepared in the school for such homes in case they are, when committed, unfit to go to them ; and second, because there will always be some children who, by reason of physical, mental, or moral peculiarities, cannot under any circumstance be placed in private homes.
11. The visiting agents should be appointed by some authority unconnected with the institution from which the children are to be taken.
12. Whatever provision may be made, should be for children of both sexes.
13. Classification of children is essential. Criminal and non-criminal children should never be associated with each other in a single institution, and probably boys and girls should be cared for in separate institutions.
14. The State should retain the control of the entire system in all its branches, and not intrust it to private persons, or to private institutions acting otherwise than under the authority of the State, and subject in all respects to whatever regulations the State may ordain for their government.

AURICULAR TEACHING OF THE DEAF.

In the last report of the Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute, Mr. Clarke, the principal, says :

It is not generally known that about three fourths of those usually called deaf-mutes have more or less hearing. There is no dividing line between hearing and deafness ; but, given a large enough number of persons, it is possible to find a gradation from the most acute hearing to absolute deafness.

Another curious fact is that a slight (in many cases a very slight) deafness, such that it would hardly be noticed in a person already familiar with the sounds of our language, if it occurs before a child has learned to recognize sounds, will frequently prevent that child from ever learning to speak, as other children do ; and, unless specially trained, it will become to all intents and purposes a deaf-mute. Attaching no significance to the imperfectly heard sounds that reach it, it pays no attention to them, or so little, that parents and friends reluctantly conclude that it is too deaf to learn to speak, and cease all efforts to teach it, when they should have redoubled them. The important point is that, by patient, long-continued, well-directed training, such children may be taught to understand language through the ear, and to speak fluently and naturally.

Whether their hearing improves by training, or not, is an unsettled

question. Many of those who have observed them most closely, think that, in some cases, it does. But the experience of the last ten years has shown that, in many cases, children who, before this training began, had been able to make no use of what hearing they had, have become able to use it to a very great extent.

This training of defective or undeveloped hearing constitutes what is known as "auricular teaching." At this institute, we have given it a great deal of attention, with results so encouraging, that we shall most undoubtedly continue it.

DEAFNESS IN FAMILIES.

The Illinois Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb prints, as an appendix to its report for 1885 and 1886, a complete list of all pupils on its rolls from the opening to the present time. This list numbers 1,886 names, and it is more complete than any we have seen, especially because it not only mentions, in the columns for remarks, whether the former pupils are married or not, but gives cross-references, showing, as far as possible, to whom they are married ; also whether their children are deaf or can hear.

These 1,886 pupils represent 1,705 families, in eight of which both parents were deaf, and in one family the father only. In no case was the mother alone a deaf-mute.

Four hundred and fifty-two pupils (or 26.5 per cent.) had deaf relatives, as follows : Father, 15 ; mother, 13 ; brother, 227 ; sister, 199 ; grandmother, 1 ; uncle, 20 ; aunt, 11 ; cousins (of all degrees), 126 ; nephews, 3 ; nieces, 2 ; great-uncles, 9 ; great-aunts, 4. The total of the foregoing figures is 630 ; but, inasmuch as in a number of instances a deaf-mute pupil had more than one brother, etc., who was also deaf, the actual apparent total of *relationships* is 776. Some of these were doubtless within the institution, and are counted twice ; while those outside may or may not be so counted. We have no means of ascertaining precisely how many *individuals*, not on the roll of the institution, are included, which is an important factor in the problem, and should have been stated.

One thing is observable : the greater preponderancy of male relationships over female. Doubtless, if cousins had been distinguished by sex, the same would have been true of them as of other relatives—there would have been many more male than female cousins reported.

Dr. Gillett says :

Of the deaf-mutes who have been connected with the institution as pupils, and have left it, 251 have married deaf-mutes, and 19 have married hearing persons. These marriages have been as fruitful in offspring as the average of marriages in society at large, some of them resulting in large families of children. It is interesting to know that, among all these, only 16 have deaf-mute children. In some of the families having a deaf child, there are other children who hear. These facts clearly indicate that the probability of deaf offspring from deaf parentage is remote, while other facts set forth herein very clearly indicate that a deaf person probably has, or will have, a deaf relative other than a child.

He further remarks :

Very nearly six per cent. (110) of the pupils admitted to this institution are reported as the offspring of parents having consanguineous origin, as follows : Children of first cousins, 73 ; of second cousins, 17 ; of third cousins, 9 ; of fourth cousins, 9 ; grandchild of first cousins, 1, child of uncle and niece, 1. These came from 88 families, in which one had 4 deaf children, five had 3 deaf children, ten had 2 deaf children ; and seventy-two had 1 deaf child.

I have experienced considerable difficulty in ascertaining facts on this point, and I believe there are some cases of this kind upon which we are not correctly informed. If all the cases of the offspring of parents related by blood were reported, I have no doubt the percentage of such would be larger, certainly not less than eight, and probably quite ten, per cent.

We invite comment by Dr. A. Graham Bell on these statements.

—Zu weit getrieben
Verfehlt die Strenge ihre weisen zwecke,
Und allzu straff gespannt zerspringt der Boden.

—SCHILLER.

INSTRUCTORS OF THE BLIND.

We have to thank Mr. Battles, of Philadelphia, for a copy of the proceedings of the Instructors of the Blind, at their ninth biennial meeting, held in New York, in July, 1886. We printed a short notice of this convention, by Mr. Huntoon, at the time, and have since spoken of Mr. McElroy's paper on the construction of institutions for the blind; therefore we feel at liberty to refer only to matters of general public interest in the present article.

How any person of ordinary intelligence and sensibility can be otherwise than interested in the blind as a class, we fail to comprehend. The condition of a blind child is eloquently described by Mr. Wait, in words quoted by Mrs. Little:

All about him in the world is strange and unknown. His ideas of things are apt to be distorted, whimsical, and exaggerated. To him, animals, buildings, ships, engines, all mechanical contrivances and implements, works of art, rivers, valleys, hills and mountains, the clouds, the sky, the moon, the sun, the stars—all things, save the few that fall within his untutored grasp in the household and its environs—all sizes, shapes, all motions of beast, bird, or fish, of falling snow and rain, of rising billow, or breaker combing on the beach—all light of lamp, fire, moon, sun, and star—to him exist in but the name, being only what his imagination pictures them to be. The feeble-minded child mistakes the shadow for the substance, the word for the thought. But the intelligent child who is deprived of sight, who craves to know the substance of things, sees not even the shadow, but hears only a sound—empty of meaning to him, because the things, the names of which he hears in spoken sounds, are unknown to him.

Fortunately or unfortunately, blindness is not so much a misfortune of childhood as of later years. Only one fifth of all the blind in this country are under twenty years of age.

The senses of touch and hearing are those mainly relied upon for the education of the blind, who can be taught to read by means of the invention of raised letters, which they feel with the tips of their fingers. But for years the "battle of the alphabets" has raged and continues to rage. All the alphabets in use, here or abroad, fall under one or the other of two great varieties, known as "line" and "point" alphabets. The ordinary Roman letter, for instance, when embossed so as to present a raised surface, is a line letter. Points are arbitrary symbols, pricked through the paper, so as to project on the upper side, nearest the reader. Of point alphabets there are two, one with the points arranged by threes, which is the Braille system; the other by twos, which is the New York or Wait system, named from its author, Mr. William B. Wait, principal of the New York Institution for the Blind. The former is in use in England and upon the continent, while the latter is peculiar to America. The United States Government maintains, at Louisville, Kentucky, a printing-house for the blind, where books are manufactured both in the line and point alphabets, in about equal proportions. A fair share of the time of this convention was taken up with a discussion of the relative merits of the two rival methods. It was said by Mr. Dow that practically every blind man can read point, while quite a proportion of blind children cannot learn to read the line letter. The difficulty in learning to distinguish the letters of the line alphabet, for older persons, the ends of whose fingers are blunted by toil, is even greater. Mr. Hall, of Philadelphia, a blind man, said that he had learned to distinguish and recognize the letters of the Wait alphabet in ten hours, but had been trying for years to master the line, without success. Another advantage claimed for the former is that pupils can learn to write it, so as to communicate with each other, and to read their own writing, which they cannot do with any line alphabet. Mr. Graves, however, contended that point print is more tedious to the sense of touch. But it seemed to be admitted that it could be read much faster, which is certainly a great merit. It was agreed, pretty generally, that one system or the other should prevail, to the exclusion of the other, in order to avoid the duplication of cost involved in printing the same books in two different styles of type. Mr. Battles, there-

fore, while avowing himself a line-letter man by education and by prejudice, admitted that his views had undergone a change, and that "the point letter is the letter that we want." Mr. Huntoon did not go quite so far. His words were: "I do not say that the use of the line letter ought entirely to disappear from our schools, but I do say that all text-books should be in point; and in the works subsequently to be printed, we should be guided by the needs of those who are now, and who are to be, our pupils."

The question of workshops for the blind is one of the live questions of the hour, not only for officers of institutions, but for legislatures as well. The great majority of the blind, as has been said, lose their sight after arriving at years of maturity. Our institutions are chiefly meant for the benefit of the juvenile blind. Their primary purpose is educational, in a literary sense, like our common schools, though all or nearly all of them have an industrial department and try to teach their pupils handicrafts, so as to render them capable of self-support in after life. To what extent do they succeed? and how far do they fail? Mr. Wait presented tables of statistics of the poorhouses of New York, and asserted that about one in forty of the inmates of these establishments is blind; but that of 307 blind paupers, in 1879, only 21 had ever been pupils of any institution for the education of the blind. Mr. Hall intimated that one half of the graduates of these institutions utterly fail to make their way successfully in life. Mr. Chapin stated that "a large portion of the blind who have learned useful trades cannot find employment." No doubt the blind carry weight, in the race. They cannot do the same amount of work as others, who have their sight; it is hardly to be supposed that, on the average, they do it as well; and they certainly have not the same facilities for disposing of the products of their labor. Then we have to consider the great number who have never been pupils in any institution for the blind. It was conceded, on all hands, that workshops for the blind are very desirable, and a blessing to those who need the help which they alone can give. Mr. Miller believed that ninety per cent. of the pupils of institutions are self-supporting, after their discharge. Mr. Morrison differed with him in opinion. Mr. Hall quoted Dr. Armitage, of England, as saying: "I doubt if ten per cent. of all the former pupils of our institutions can support themselves by the trades they have learned at school." But we may be permitted to hope that American institutions excel the English, in this particular. Mr. Anagnos thought that instead of congregating the blind together and making of them a class apart, they should be dispersed as much as possible in general society. He agreed, however, that the plan of workshops for their benefit has great merits, so far as its industrial elements are concerned, if it can be kept free from any eleemosynary taint, lest, while they seem to aid the body, they crush the spirit. They should not be almshouses, nor retreats for persons weak in body or mind, or disposed to subsist on the bread of charity and to shun the active occupations of life: better the ordinary town and county poorhouses, with all their imperfections and disadvantages. The discussion developed two points of serious difference between members of the convention, namely: first, whether boarding departments should be associated with them; and, second, whether they should be maintained at the expense of the States. As to the former, Mr. Anagnos said:

If it is necessary for these institutions to provide homes for some of the apprentices, while they are learning their trade, and consequently have no means of support, it would be by far the best plan to board them in the neighborhood of the workshop for a strictly limited period of time and not to bring them together under one roof.

Work should be provided for the blind, he thought, at their homes; and "instead of spending large sums for the purchase of grounds and for vast piles of brick and mortar, these institutions should have a permanent fund invested, the interest of which should be devoted to eking out the wages of men and women who can earn nearly but not quite

enough to support themselves." Mr. Wait substantially concurred in this opinion, when he said that the blind who can and will work, but are unable to find work, should receive aid "in a place where they are not congregated in large numbers, but in ordinary families." Mr. Hall (who has charge of the Working Home for the Blind in Philadelphia) said :

I would prefer, personally, to adopt Mr. Anagnos' idea of paying a man what he earns and letting him board anywhere he chooses—it would be less trouble. But I think his morals are improved, when we take him in and board him, as we do.

As to the other point,—aid or support from the State treasury,—is it necessary? is it wise? The necessity of aid from some source is admitted. Mr. Chapin remarked that no such establishment can be self-supporting. Mr. Hall stated that, at Philadelphia, with 123 workmen, the deficit, at the end of 1885, was over \$4,000, or \$33.80 per man. But Mr. Huntoon opposed State aid, in the following words :

Now, in the opinion of some, the short road to success, in the matter of workshops, seems to be to apply to the legislatures for a grant. Heart-rending stories are told of the sufferings of some poor blind man, educated in an institution, keen in intellect, rotting away in an almshouse, for want of a helping hand; and the State is implored to come to his help. The State is the last place to which we should apply for help. We cannot claim that the care of the blind belongs to the State, any more than that the care of the deaf and dumb, and of the one-legged and one-armed men, belongs to the State.

Mr. Wait thought it clear that "these establishments ought not to be organized under State control and as a matter of State or public policy."

Mr. Hall did not make any argument as to this point; but Mr. Brown, secretary of the Ohio Working Home for Blind Men, said that he undertook to work "on the benevolent plan, as recommended by Mr. Hall," but everybody asked him why he did not go to the legislature. He did so, and was successful. Mr. Hall's position is not clear, but his remark that "the legislature reaches every county," and his question, "what would become of the insane, if the State were not to care for them?" indicate it.

Between the lines of this debate we discover an apparent want of thorough cordiality toward industrial institutions for the blind, on the part of the managers of purely educational institutions, lest the former should in some way clash with the interests of the other, or be construed as a reflection upon them for failing to accomplish all that they might. Does such a feeling really exist? We trust not.

We have taken up so much space already, that we can only refer in passing to the project of a National College for the Blind, which was endorsed by the convention, and a large committee appointed to urge the attention of Congress and secure favorable legislation, if possible.

The meeting of the trustees of the American Printing-House for the Blind, held at the same time and place with the convention, was entirely taken up with a dispute as to the proper use of the fund; whether institutions are entitled to order, through this house, books or apparatus for the blind manufactured elsewhere, and whether, assuming that this is not a perversion of the fund, the business interests of the concern will admit of it. A resolution that requisitions, by any institution for the blind, for books or tangible apparatus, printed or constructed elsewhere than at Louisville, shall be duly honored, provided that they do not exceed 20 per cent. of the income from the subsidy fund of the institution making such requisition, was carried, by a vote of 14 to 5, over Mr. Huntoon's vigorous protest.

He beheld the city and wept over it.—Luke xix. : 41.

The destruction of the poor is their poverty.—Prov. x. : 15.

Heaven is for those who have failed on earth.—LORD CARLISLE.

In order to give wisely, two things are said to be essential: one must have dollars and—sense.

THE BALTIMORE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES.

By A. G. WARNER.

The Conference of Charities held at Baltimore, on the 15th and 16th of April, was at first intended merely to arouse local interest in the subject of charity organization; but the number of prominent men who were finally brought together, and the intrinsic value of the proceedings, have given to them a wider importance.

FRIDAY.

Friday afternoon was devoted to "the actual work of charity organization societies, here and elsewhere, from the point of view of those who are personally concerned in their management."

The Conference was called to order by Mr. John Glenn, chairman of the committee of arrangements, who invited Mr. James Hodges, the Mayor of Baltimore, to take the chair. The mayor delivered an address of welcome, in which, among other things, he remarked :

"It may be said that perhaps no city in the American Union makes a larger annual appropriation from the treasury, in proportion to its population, to support its charitable and reformatory institutions. About \$300,000 are yearly contributed by the city government for these objects; although we have just reduced the taxes for 1887, by a policy of retrenchment, we have increased the amount expended for public charities over the amount expended in that direction last year."

President Gilman, of the Johns Hopkins University, presented, on behalf of the committee of arrangements, a specific statement of the condition of the charitable institutions of Baltimore. The more important items in the annual expenditures for the relief of the poor of Baltimore include \$80,000 appropriated by the city for the support of the almshouse at Bay View; \$24,000 raised by voluntary contributions and distributed in the form of groceries and coal by the "Poor Association"; \$12,000 by the Hebrew Benevolent Society; about \$10,000 given to the police by individuals for distribution in out-door relief; and more than one hundred institutions for the relief of special classes, the revenues of which are derived from taxation, contributions, and endowments, and whose annual expenditures amount to about \$200,000 per annum.

Mr. Charles D. Kellogg, the secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society, delivered an address in which he gave a summary of the splendid year's work done by that association. It was an "argument by statement" in favor of charity organization. His statement that a charity organization society should *never* give relief was called in question, as similar statements nearly always are. Judge Francis Wayland, of New Haven, Connecticut, argued in favor of an "immediate assistance fund," which, he said, is necessary as a guaranty to the community that no one will suffer through delay. The Reverend Edward Everett Hale, of Boston, found it possible to agree with both of these gentlemen. He said that there are two distinct tasks before us: to relieve poverty and to prevent pauperism. The latter is distinctively the work of the charity organization society. Wherever the development of charitable institutions is so complete, that other societies are ready at all times to furnish immediate relief when needed, a charity organization society can confine itself simply to the work it was primarily intended to perform. But where other societies that can be implicitly relied upon for this relief work do not exist, it is sometimes necessary that one society should do the work of two. Thus a course expedient and even necessary in New Haven may be neither the one nor the other in New York; the fundamental difference between the two forms of service must, however, be always borne in mind.

Mr. Kellogg replied to the question how to interest persons outside the society, and secure their co-operation, that the way to interest people is to be of use to them; the

way to secure help is to be helpful. The way to maintain interest on the part of members of the association is to give them something to do.

Rev. H. L. Wayland, of Philadelphia, summed up what he considered the four cardinal points in all charitable effort: (1) Discriminating and intelligent relief; we must consider not only the condition of the applicant, but his prospects. (2) Employment, not bread; give people something to do, not something to eat. (3) Personal contact; we can do very little with a ten-foot pole. (4) Moral re-enforcement; it is not bread the poor want, but support; not soup, but soul.

In reply to the question whether or not the relief of poverty and the repression of crime should be attempted by the same society, Judge Wayland answered that the New Haven society, finding that much poverty is due to crime, caused a separate society for the prevention of crime to be organized. The latter, with the President of Yale College at its head, secured the revision and enforcement of the liquor law, abolished variety theatres, and was going on to suppress the game of "policy," when it came in contact with the "practical politicians," and failed of its purpose.

The session of Friday evening was devoted to the consideration of "the exercise of public and private charity in large towns, considered in the light of the experience accumulated in various places."

This meeting was held in Oratorio Hall, which has a seating capacity of 1,600, and was nearly filled. John K. Cowen, Esq., attorney of the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, presided, and opened the meeting with a speech that was very much to the point, though not exactly to the point indicated by the subject of the evening's discussion. His theme was the B. and O. Employés' Relief Association, and the collateral institutions that have grown out of it, such as the circulating library, the Mount Clair training-school, the savings-fund, and the building society. The Relief Association was organized in 1880, and membership in it was at first voluntary, but afterwards obligatory on all who entered the employ of the company. Mr. Cowen showed how this association had so operated that it is a matter of economy for the company to have perfect sanitary arrangements wherever their employés are at work, as this costs less than to pay the sick benefits. It also costs less to build high-roofed bridges than to pay the life insurance of the brakemen that are killed by low ones; and it is found that a timely distribution of the proper medicines in malarial districts not only enables more men to keep at work, but increases the efficiency of those employed. After speaking of the Manual Training-School at Mount Clair and its influence, as well as that of the other offshoots of the Relief Association, upon the morale of the B. and O. employés, the chairman introduced Mr. Edward Everett Hale, who spoke of the Industrial Aid Society of Boston.

This is an organization established fifty-one years ago for the purpose of preventing pauperism. In Mr. Hale's opinion, there is no such thing as a real glut of labor; the trouble is, that those who want employment cannot find the places where they are wanted. "There is in this world enough for us to do, till every one of us has every thing he wants." He said that it is the boast of the Boston Society that it can supply any demand within forty-eight hours. He thought that there should be established in Chicago a bureau of information constantly in correspondence with the whole country, and that it should send out circulars in every direction, and state what kind of men, and how many, are wanted in each particular place. One great evil of our industrial system is the employment of farm-hands by the month, a system which leaves them to drift idly into the cities during the months from November to April. Mr. Hale also urged the establishment of government pawnshops like the French *Mont-de-piété*.

Dr. Lyman Abbott warned his audience against the danger of placing too much reliance on the mere machinery

of organization. If the Good Samaritan had been a Yankee of our time, he would probably have gone back to Jerusalem and organized a society for the rescue of the man that had fallen among thieves. The first condition of charity organization is that we have charity. Machinery cannot create power. "There is only one sort of real wealth in the world, character; and there is only one sort of real poverty in the world, loss of character." There is no machinery so constructed that you can put a gold dollar in the hopper and have character come out in the meal-bag. The problem of the relief of poverty and the repression of pauperism lies at the bottom of all modern economic, industrial, and political questions. "We shall solve it when we get to the millennium."

Mr. Kellogg spoke on "Better Methods in Charitable Work," drawing again from the experience of the New York society, showing how it had saved money for the charitable and even benefited the vicious when it exposed their frauds.

Judge Wayland was the last regular speaker of the evening, and reviewed again some of the established maxims of charity organization.

In closing, Mr. Cowen told of a lawyer who said to the jury that he was going to discuss first the facts of the case, then the law of the case, and then he proposed to make a "powerful lunge for their passions." He thought that by way of pointing the moral of all that had been said they should be exhorted to support their charity organization society; Baltimoreans fall short in charitable work as they do in business—from lack of syndicating power.

SATURDAY.

The session of Saturday morning was given up to the discussion of "industrial pursuits and industrial training, as a means of preventing pauperism and correcting bad habits."

Col. Wm. Allan, of the McDonogh School for Poor Boys, presided, and opened the discussion of the subject. The speakers that followed him were Dr. Thomas K. Beecher, Mr. Charles L. Brace, Dr. Richard T. Ely, Dr. Edward Everett Hale, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, Judge Francis Wayland, and Mr. William Frederic Slocum. Dr. Beecher created something of a sensation by saying that he had advised a couple of young men to commit grand larceny, in order that they might be placed under the restraining and educative influences of the Elmira Reformatory. He defended his advice on the ground that the State had made no other provision equally adequate for the education of young men. (The two in question did not take his advice.)

The following resolutions were offered by Dr. Richard Grady, formerly director of the Baltimore Manual Training-School, seconded by Professor F. D. Morrison of the Institution for the Blind, and adopted:

WHEREAS, We believe that there is an industrial training, which is neither technical nor professional, that is calculated to make better men and women and better citizens of our youth, no matter what calling they may afterward follow, and that affects directly and in a most salutary manner their mind and character; therefore,

Resolved, That a committee of five (of whom the chairman of this meeting shall be one) be appointed to organize an Industrial Educational Association, the objects of which shall be:

- (1.) To obtain and disseminate information upon industrial education, and to stimulate public opinion in its favor.
- (2.) To invite co-operation between existing organizations engaged in any form of industrial training.
- (3.) To promote the training of both sexes in such industries as shall enable those trained to become self-supporting.
- (4.) To study and devise methods and systems of industrial training, and secure their introduction into schools; also, when expedient, to form special classes and schools for such instruction.
- (5.) To provide instructors for schools and classes, and, if necessary, to train teachers for this work.

In the afternoon the conference met in the lecture-room of the Johns Hopkins Hospital, to listen to an address by Mr. Francis T. King, President of the Board of Trustees of that institution; after which the members were shown through the fifteen buildings that occupy the park-like campus of the hospital.

In the evening another large audience assembled in the hall of the Young Mens' Christian Association, Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, chairman of the board of managers of the Baltimore Catholic Orphan School, presiding. The programme was announced as consisting of "a series of short papers" as follows:

"The Literature of Charities," by Dr. Herbert B. Adams; "On Bad Food as Provocative of Intemperance," by Dr. H. Newell Martin; "The Legislation that has been Found Most Effective in the Elimination of the Tramp," by Judge Francis Wayland and Mr. H. M. Bowdoin; "Thomas Chalmers' Work," by Dr. W. U. Murkland; "Heredity in Pauperism and Crime," by Mr. Charles L. Brace; "Poverty and Pauperism," by Mr. John Glenn; "Provident Savings-Banks," by James Carey, Jr.; "The Wilson Method of Promoting the Purchase of Fuel, Sewing-Machines, etc.," by Dr. James Carey Thomas. These short papers turned out to be so long, that Messrs. Murkland, Glenn, Carey, and Thomas "asked leave to print," and the conference adjourned *sine die* at ten o'clock P.M.

The proceedings were stenographically reported, and are to be carefully edited and published in full, with an introductory chapter giving an analysis and description of the charities of Baltimore.

About two hundred persons registered as members of the conference, and those who had attended many gatherings of the kind said they had never seen larger or more attentive audiences at such meetings.

A lunch was given by President Gilman to the visitors from other cities and a few invited guests.

On the Sunday evening following, Dr. Beecher preached on the subject of charity in one of the churches of Baltimore. A passage of Scripture which he quoted, towards the close of his sermon, in a somewhat altered form, might very well have served as its text: "Pure religion and undefiled before God and the Father is this, to visit the fatherless and widows in their affliction, and to keep yourself unspotted from—*political economy*."

The sermon as preached was an enigma, and evidently intended to be so, but as reported in the next morning's papers it was not at all palatable to the friends of charity organization.

OUR LETTER-BOX.

I am very much pleased with the RECORD. It fills admirably a most important place in our current literature.

STEPHEN SMITH, M.D.

New York, April 21st.

Dr. Smith is commissioner in lunacy for the State of New York.

I congratulate you on the continued success of your journal, the value of which is, I hope, rendered unmistakable by the number of subscribers. D. HACK TUKE, M.D.

Lyndon Lodge, Hanwell, England.

Dr. Tuke writes us that he has in preparation a paper for the International Medical Congress at Washington, of which he is one of the vice-presidents (of the section on psychology). But the memory of his visit to America in 1884 is so agreeable and unique, that he fears that it might be blurred by repetition. We hasten to assure him of a warmer welcome from his many friends on this side than he had before, and trust that nothing may prevent our again taking him by the hand.

The managers of the new Minnesota Reformatory held their first meeting to-day, and elected as superintendent Mr. D. E. Myer, of St. Cloud. It is the intention of the board, during the month of May, to visit the reformatories of New York, Massachusetts, Michigan, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, in order to study their methods. The board will probably build a cell-room, to accommodate about fifty prisoners, and transfer that number from the State prison. All subsequent buildings are to be erected by the inmates of the reformatory.

HASTINGS H. HART.

St. Paul, Minnesota, April 9th.

We earnestly desire and request all officers of State governments, or of public or private institutions or societies of a charitable or correctional sort, to send us, from time to time, just such items as the above, to be published in the same way, over the names of our correspondents. They would interest our readers, add to the value of the paper, and promote mutual acquaintance and affection among the workers in this field. Do not suppose that it is necessary to write a long letter, or take much time; and do not imagine that the information given is too trivial to be of more than local interest and importance. The ocean is made up of drops.

CITES FOR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The practice of soliciting donations or "bonuses" of lands or money as a consideration for locating public institutions is a demoralizing one. In the State of Illinois commissions for locating public institutions are forbidden by law to receive any such consideration in behalf of the State or in their own behalf. In the State of Minnesota a commission appointed to locate a new insane hospital announced at the outset to all interested that they would not avail themselves of the privilege allowed by law, but would decline to consider any proposals for donations of land or money.

There is no sufficient reason to justify this method. When a State needs land, it should pay for it a reasonable price. Public institutions are located for centuries to come, and a consideration of a few thousand dollars ought not to have any influence as against the best possible location of the institution. It is beneath the dignity of a great State to set up the permanent location of a public institution at auction to the highest bidder.

The worst evil connected with this practice is the embarrassment of boards of trustees, from local influences. The citizens of the town where a public institution is located feel that their donation constitutes a permanent lien upon the institution, giving them a right to dictate as to its management, to monopolize its trade, and to lobby for lavish expenditures of public money for improvements.

Several cases have come under the notice of the writer where the interests of the State have suffered in consequence of this unwise practice.

The Illinois plan is a good one and ought to be generally adopted.

OUR EXCHANGES.

Mr. Wm. Alex. Johnson, Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Chicago, has started a little eight-page monthly sheet, entitled *The Reporter of Organized Charity*, designed mainly for local circulation, the first number of which appeared in March. We welcome every co-worker in this field, which is "white unto harvest," and wish that this enterprise may receive all the encouragement which it so abundantly merits.

In the *Journal of Mental Science* for April, Dr. Robie argues in favor of smaller institutions for the insane, the individualization of patients, and the relief of physicians in charge from all mere fiscal duties. Dr. Hughlings Jackson contributes some very interesting observations on the evolution and dissolution of the nervous system. A description is given by Dr. Macleod of a detached hospital for fourteen cases of infectious disease in connection with the East Riding Asylum; it is illustrated by a ground plan and elevation. The construction and organization of hospitals for the insane is discussed by Dr. Sanger Brown, who believes in day-rooms and in associated dining-rooms contiguous to the kitchen; he furnishes a plan. The other articles are equally important and valuable. In the *Psychological Retrospect* we find much that is suggestive, and are pleased to see a notice of Dr. Earle's book on "The Curability of Insanity," together with a very full statement of Mr. Sanborn's views as to the increase of insanity in Massachusetts.

Mr. Clark Bell, president of the Medico-Legal Society of New York, and editor of the *Medico-Legal Journal*, has sent

us a volume of 550 pages, containing the papers read before the society from 1875 to 1878, published in 1886, for which we thank him. There are many questions of medical jurisprudence which interest both lawyers and physicians, and David Paul Brown, the eminent Philadelphia lawyer, has well said that "A doctor who knows nothing of law, and a lawyer who knows nothing of medicine, are deficient in essential requisites of their profession." The purpose of the Medico-Legal Society is to secure a joint discussion, by members of both professions, with a view to affecting legislation, on such topics as mental responsibility, testamentary capacity, medical expert testimony, criminal malpractice, the adulteration of foods, poisoning, etc., etc. In the book before us are many articles of value; but we are bound to say that the typography and proof-reading are very unsatisfactory. There are several very fair portraits, both on wood and steel.

PERSONAL.

The following changes in the staff of institutions for the insane are noted in the *Journal of Insanity* for April:

ARNOLD, Dr. John A., superintendent of the King's County Hospital, appointed also medical superintendent of the King's County Insane Asylum, Flatbush, N. Y. By this appointment, the hospital, asylum, and county farm or almshouses are consolidated under one management.

BACKUS, Dr. Ogden, third assistant physician, Willard, N. Y., promoted to be second assistant.

DENT, Dr. E. C., appointed superintendent of the New York City Lunatic Asylum, Blackwell's Island, *vice* Dr. Franklin.

FRANKLIN, Dr. T. M., superintendent of the New York City Lunatic Asylum, resigned.

MAHON, Dr. William, appointed fourth assistant physician, Willard, N. Y.

PILGRIM, Dr. Charles N., second assistant physician, Willard, N. Y., promoted to be first assistant.

SCROGGS, Dr. Joseph, assistant physician, Dixmont, Pa., resigned, on account of ill-health.

SEMPLE, Dr. John M., formerly clinical assistant at the New York State Asylum for Insane Criminals, appointed assistant physician, Flatbush, N. Y.

SHAW, Dr. John C., superintendent, Flatbush, N. Y., resigned.

TRAUTMAN, Dr. A., first assistant physician, New York City Lunatic Asylum, Ward's Island, promoted to be superintendent.

WAGNER, Dr. Charles W., fourth assistant physician, Willard, N. Y., promoted to be third assistant.

WILLIAMSON, Dr. H. S., appointed assistant physician, Independence, Iowa, and will give special attention to the pathological work of the hospital.

We should be glad to notice personal changes in the officers of institutions for the insane, or any other institutions, every month, if furnished with the information in the form given above.

FACT AND OPINION.

The Insane.

A female patient was brought to the Nebraska hospital for the insane, who had been kept in a cellar for six months.

The population of Scandinavia (which includes Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Denmark) is 10,400,000, and the number of insane is 18,000 or 17.4 per cent. About 5,500 are provided for in public establishments. The fullest provision has been made in Denmark, but, even there, nearly half of the insane are on the outside.

The luxury of trying an insane man by jury is rather a costly (as well as an unnecessary) way of showing our regard for Magna Charta, precisely as burning up half a city on the Fourth of July is rather a costly way of reminding American citizens that their forefathers burnt gunpowder in order to secure their political independence.—Dr. JOHN ORDRONAU.

By the term "probation" (in a hospital for the insane) is to be understood a temporary release, for the purpose of determining whether the patient has so far recovered or convalesced as to be able to resume previous relations. Probation is unquestionably the most efficient method of bringing about the discharge of patients. In many cases it is more than a simple test: it is a very important part of curative treatment. When, in any stage of the disease, the individual is more likely to recover by an absence from the asylum, either temporary or prolonged, its benefits should certainly be accorded to him.—Dr. C. W. STEVENS.

An idiot, according to the classification of the census compilers, is one whose mental defect dates from birth or soon after. Under this head,

enough could be segregated from the inmates of the Stockton insane asylum to fill a good-sized home for idiots to-morrow. A fair estimate would place the number in California at considerably over 1,000. It is hard to see why they are not as much entitled to the humanitarian care of the State as are those whose mental derangement began later in life. To place them in an asylum for the insane is the reverse of humanitarian. To associate idiots with lunatics is to do them grievous and irremediable wrong, inasmuch as they learn by imitation solely, and copy after those around them.—Dr. W. H. MAYS.

The discussion of restraint and non-restraint at the last quarterly meeting of the (British) Medico-Psychological Association was characterized by a disposition to accept somewhat broader views than those usually held by English alienists. Dr. Baker exhibited a model of an American crib-bedstead, which, in the opinion of Dr. Phillips, would be invaluable for an old lady under his care, with whom an attendant sits up every night, and yet it is almost impossible to keep her in bed unless she has a jacket on. It excited much curiosity, and Dr. Brushfield recalled an engraving, published in 1852, of a similar invention by Dr. Wood, of Bethlem Hospital. Dr. Fox mentioned a much ruder contrivance in use, in the asylum with which he is now connected, about the year 1810—a padded box, which slipped up and allowed the patient's head to move freely. But the main current of talk flowed around and over the question of strong clothing for certain classes of the insane, concerning which considerable difference of opinion was manifested.

I can produce any day a hundred lunatics, selected from our various [New York] asylums, who, if they were placed in any parlor or office, and engaged in general conversation, would no more reveal their insanity necessarily than they would their religious convictions or their parentage. If you were asked to state under oath your opinion of such person's sanity, you would feel almost ashamed to doubt it, for fear of casting imputation on your own. Yet these people are lunatics, and need hospital treatment. You think they are well, because they are not in an actual paroxysm of their malady; but they are just as much within its grasp, as a man with tertian ague is within the grasp of his disease on his well days. Insanity, like all the neuroses, is a disease characterized by intermittent exacerbations, and while, in its intervals and to the eyes of casual observers, its victims may seem perfectly restored, experts know but too well the unreliability of any opinion based on a personal examination, when not accompanied by a complete history of the patient's past life.—Dr. JOHN ORDRONAU.

Dr. Rayner, the honorary secretary of the parliamentary committee of the Medico-Psychological Association, wrote to the Lord Chancellor on behalf of the committee, criticising several of the sections of the Lunacy Acts Amendment Bill then pending, particularly the third clause, which required that notice should be given to the alleged lunatic by the magistrate. This, he said, "would be most inimical to the welfare of the insane, and would lead in some cases to the suicide of the patient, in others would induce homicidal assaults, and in many would enable the lunatic to escape from the jurisdiction of the magistrate." The objectionable clause was ultimately withdrawn, and another substituted for it, which provided that, after admission to an institution for the insane by authority of any judge or magistrate, without having been personally seen or examined by him, the patient should have the right, under certain restrictions, to be taken before or visited by some judge or magistrate other than the one who signed the order of commitment. The bill passed March 17th. With regard to private asylums, those now in existence are protected, but the creation of new ones is prohibited.

We should, in strictness, speak not of varieties of insanity, but of insanities. For, obviously, there are different kinds as well as degrees of insanity: that is, there are dissolutions beginning in different divisions of the highest centres. Melancholia (posterior lobes?) and general paralysis (anterior lobes?) signify different local dissolutions of the highest centres, as certainly as brachioptegia and cruroptegia signify different local dissolutions of the middle motor centres, or as ophthalmoplegia externa and ordinary progressive muscular atrophy signify different local dissolutions of the lowest motor centres. . . . We shall speak of three levels of central evolution. (1) The lowest level consists of anterior and posterior horns of the spinal cord, and of Clarke's (visceral) column, and Stilling's nucleus, and of the homologues of these parts higher up: it represents all parts of the body most nearly directly. (2) The middle level consists of Ferrier's motor region, with the ganglia of the corpus striatum, and also of his sensory region; it represents all parts of the body doubly indirectly. (3) The highest level consists of highest motor centres (præ-frontal lobes), and of highest sensory centres (occipital lobes): they represent all parts of the body triply indirectly. These highest sensori-motor centres make up the "organ of mind" or physical basis of consciousness; they are evolved out of the middle, as the middle are out of the lowest, and as the lowest are out of the periphery; thus the highest centres re-represent the body—that is, represent it triply indirectly. . . . Each of the levels is universally representing. . . . The evolutionary scheme of centres ignores morphological divisions. . . . Nervous evolution does not imply insensible gradations, but occasional stoppages, which are re-beginnings. Hence centres are not only "reservoirs of energy," but also "resisting positions." . . . Representation and co-ordination are the same thing: all centres of all ranks are at once co-ordinating and representing: centres do not represent muscles, but movements of muscles. . . . Insanities considered as diseases of the highest centres have to be com-

pared and contrasted with diseases of middle and lowest centres. . . . Progressive muscular atrophy, paralysis agitans, and general paralysis of the insane are alike in being owing to wasting of cells in the order of their size from smallest towards largest; they are different in that the wasting occurs respectively on the lowest, middle, and highest levels of motor evolution; there is loss of simplest, of complex, and of most complex movements. . . . What on the lowest level are (1) centres for simplest movements of the limbs become evolved, in the highest centres, into the physical bases of volition; what on the lowest level are (2) centres for simple reflex actions of eyes and hands are evolved, in the highest centres, into the physical bases of visual and tactual ideas; what on the lowest level are (3) centres for movements of the tongue, palate, lips, etc., are, in the highest centres, evolved into the physical bases of words—symbols serving us during abstract reasoning; what on the lowest level are (4) centres representing the circulatory, respiratory, and digestive movements are evolved, in the highest centres, into the physical bases of emotions. So to speak, the lowest level does menial work; the highest level, evolved out of it, becomes in great degree independent of it, and is the anatomical basis of mind.—Dr. HUGHLINGS JACKSON.

The Deaf.

Alabama is said to be the only State in the Union that makes no provision for the education of deaf or blind children of the colored race.

The Pennsylvania institution employs a dentist, whose report for 1886 shows 628 fillings, 150 teeth extracted, 6 pulps capped, 33 pulps devitalized, 2 cases of pericementitis treated, and 1 artificial set supplied, during the year.

The *Revue Internationale* for January contains a portrait of Ferdinand Berthier, the founder of the Universal Association of Deaf-Mutes, who was a member of several learned societies and chevalier of the Legion of Honor. He was eighty-three years of age at the date of his death.

The Rhode Island school (day-school) expresses a strong desire for a boarding department, and is of the opinion that such a department would be a special benefit to those taught by the oral method. The influence and results of the daily recitations and training are said to be "counteracted, and all but lost at times, by the hindrances, absences, and careless and sometimes wrong influences to which the little ones are subjected out of school hours."

"The idea, so prevalent among people who have paid no attention to the matter, that deafness is not as common among negroes as among the white race, does not seem to be sustained by the facts. In this State there are known to be 40 such children, of school age, though they are harder to find than white children—the parents and friends of the white children in school here not caring to send the names of negroes to the principal, because they do not want them here." So says Mr. F. D. Clarke, of the Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute. But the last census certainly does show that the ratio of deaf-mutes to the total population is, in the white race, 1 to 1,415, but, in the colored races, only 1 to 2,089. Every census that has been taken shows a similar disproportion.

We have an exceedingly interesting case, in the person of one of our pupils who is blind as well as deaf, having lost both sight and hearing at the age of eight years. During his three years with us, he has made wonderful progress. He is now able to read the books for the blind; and, with his pin-type, he writes his lessons, letters to his friends, etc. We consider the pin-type better for him than the type-writer, for he can read the print himself, and so can correct any mistake he chances to make. His teacher communicates with him by placing her hand in his, and by means of the manual alphabet, conveys ideas to him very rapidly. His sense of feeling is more acute than the sense of sight is in other children. We arranged the whole alphabet on a glove, after A. Graham Bell's method of teaching a deaf-mute, and the poor child is thus enabled to converse with any one. Whoever wishes to ask him a question, simply touches the letters on the glove, spelling every word. He answers orally, as he yet retains his speech. His voice is rather weak, though it has strengthened much since he came to the institution. He is very happy, and keenly appreciates every thing that is done for him.—Sisters of St. Joseph (Le Conteulx Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.)

I object to the usual standard of success in life being applied to the deaf and the blind. From certain avenues of activity they are necessarily debarred, though sometimes by power of will and aptitude they thrust themselves into positions and professions where least expected. They do not obtain nor seek for political preferment, though they vote intelligently. They do not fail for large amounts, pay ten cents on the dollar, and go to Europe on the profits of the bankruptcy. I never knew one to keep a "dive," to wreck a bank, or to embezzle funds and flee to Canada or other foreign countries where there are no extradition treaties. They do not know how to manipulate the stock-market, nor are they active in the produce exchange. Their merits have no marketable value, nor would they be accepted as collateral security for a loan at the counter of any sound bank or careful money-lender. Yet the qualities which the average educated deaf-mute possesses in great degree, are the measure of a nation's wealth, and constitute its true and permanent sources of prosperity. They are honest, industrious, little given to drink or dissipation, faithful to duty and conscience, happy in harmless pleasures, and good citizens in their relations to family and State. Now and then one takes to evil courses and drifts into crime or vagrancy, but such rare cases can nearly always be traced to hereditary taint or vicious environment, which it would require almost superhuman virtue to overcome or resist.—WARING WILKINSON.

The Blind.

A legacy of \$20,000 has been left for the establishment of an institution for the blind in the county of Allegheny (Pennsylvania). A gentleman of Pittsburgh has promised to raise an additional sum of \$12,000 to help the work.

From the date of its organization, the New York Institution for the Blind has received, in the form of gifts and bequests, very nearly \$280,000, of which \$220,000 is invested and produces an income. The remainder was expended in construction.

Mrs. Nancy Fitzpatrick, of Muncie, Indiana, died, childless, in 1871, and left a will, by the terms of which, after giving a certain sum of money to each of several blind persons named (friends and associates of her blind daughter), and providing for the payment of certain expenses, she bequeathed the rest of her property to the superintendent of the Indiana Institute for the Blind, and to his successors, in trust, to be given to them on leaving, in such sums as he may judge proper. This fund amounts, however, to only about five hundred dollars—the widow's mite.

We are greatly hindered in our work by lack of promptness on the part of parents in sending their children to the institute as soon as they arrive at the proper age, and in not returning them immediately at the opening of each term thereafter. It is true that every means should be first used to restore the sight of the child, and nothing left undone so long as hope remains, but, once having ascertained that the blindness is incurable, and the child having arrived at the proper age, and being in good health, no time should be lost in placing it in the way of getting an education. The sympathy which would keep it at home because of its infirmity is a gross and lasting injustice.—J. B. PARMELEE.

We learn from the census of 1880 that there were, in the United States, 7,173 blind children between the ages of 8 and 21 years. These are the minimum and maximum ages at which pupils are usually admitted to institutions for the blind. During the same year, there were enrolled in the 29 institutions then in the several States, according to the reports of the superintendents, 2,245 pupils or 31 per cent. of the whole number of school age. In 1885, the number of pupils enrolled in all the institutions in this country was 2,567, which, allowing for a reasonable increase of the number of school age, could not have been more than 33½ per cent. of the whole number between 8 and 21 years of age.—H. B. JACOBS.

The recent project of a national school for the higher education of the blind is neither warranted by the scope of government outlined by the constitution, nor is it in accord with past Congressional legislation. The national government was not instituted for paternal purposes, such as the education of any specific class, except those to be employed in the army and navy. Besides, after its munificent donations to the several States for educational purposes, the States should not ask it to open or maintain a school or schools for any class of their people; they should willingly and abundantly provide for their own unfortunates, and not permit their responsibility to be transferred to, or even shared with, the national government.—GEORGE H. MILLER (Kansas).

Manual training is a necessary and legitimate part of the educational work of institutions for the blind. But this work ought not and can not assume the dimensions and character of a trade school. The teaching of skilled trades and the maintenance of a manufacturing establishment involving a large plant, a sufficient working capital, and the interest of a permanent fund with which to supplement losses which must inevitably arise, are neither necessary nor legitimate objects of educational work. Working establishments where trades can be taught on the apprenticeship plan, where employment can be given, and business carried on upon business principles, should be organized and maintained separate from the educational establishments.—WILLIAM B. WAIT.

From an experience of over forty years in charge of the blind, I know that, while many are successful under the faithful instruction they have received, a considerable number need further assistance in kind, after leaving the institution. This help is, prominently, employment, if they are mechanics. Some fortunately have homes in neighborhoods where they can seek their own support in whole or part. Others are homeless or friendless. Some seek occupation in our larger cities and find none. I look upon the Pennsylvania Working Home as a good example (if not a model) of what can be accomplished for one hundred or more blind mechanics in the way of occupation, and about fifty or sixty supplied with board at a moderate cost, which is retained from their monthly earnings.—WILLIAM CHAPIN.

Much is said by all workers among the blind as to workshops becoming self-sustaining. The problem is a perfectly easy one to solve in one way, by selecting from all applicants only those who can do a certain kind of work and a given amount of it. But this would deprive a large proportion of the blind of employment, namely, those who can only earn less than 100 per cent. of their living. This we cannot do, for in that class are found many honest, well-disposed persons, glad to do *all they can* toward a support, if opportunity is offered. In many of the workshops of Europe whatever the blind earn is supplemented, up to a fixed amount per week, from charity funds. But it has ever been and must be our aim to divest our work from any and every tendency to pauperization. This can only be done by stimulating a desire on the part of the blind to support themselves.—H. L. HALL.

Prisons and Prisoners.

There is no good penitentiary system without aid to discharged convicts.—*DEMETZ.*

Any prison is a reformatory only to the extent that its officers make it such.—*Warden WATKINS.*

Clinton prison (New York) reported, last year, a surplus of earnings over expenditures, for the first time since it was established.

Sixty per cent. of the inmates of the New York State prisons are under thirty years of age, and the majority are not over twenty-five years old.

Another institution dissatisfied with its name is the State Workhouse at Bridgewater, Massachusetts, which wishes to be rechristened "The State Farm."

Amos Pillsbury said that, if financial profit is not the aim of prison administration, at least satisfactory reformatory results cannot be reached here that end is not sought.

Superintendent Warner, of the Alleghany County Workhouse, near Pittsburgh, reports that the net cost of that institution, from its organization in January, 1870, until the close of the last fiscal year, has been \$315,791.56. Of \$999,767.45 received from the license fund, \$996,380 has been returned to the county.

The average criminal displays a remarkable ignorance of the science of numbers, other things being equal, as if there was in his composition a deficiency of logical, deductive, and analytical power.—*Dr. H. D. WEV.* But is not the same observation equally applicable to the ordinary schoolboy in our public schools? and if so, can this be a special mark of a criminal character and disposition?

The convicts sent to the Florida State prison are all leased to Mr. Charles K. Dutton, and employed by him, in Suwannee county, in the manufacture of naval stores. He receives them at the jails of the counties where they are sentenced, pays all expenses and costs of every description, and is allowed their labor in return, but no money is paid him from the State treasury. His contract runs for four years from the first of January, 1886. The number on hand, at the close of the first year, was 236.

Mr. Brockway, superintendent of the Elmira Reformatory, recommends, in his last report, the conversion of the State Prison at Auburn into a second Reformatory. He further suggests that the minimum of detention, which is now one year, should be extended to one year and a half. The results of an experiment in physical training for mental and moral improvement of twelve selected prisoners of the lowest type, who were apparently incorrigible, encourage him to believe that the same treatment might be advantageously applied to fully 150 of the inmates of the institution.

The output of the coal-mine worked by the men confined in the Kansas penitentiary, at Leavenworth, in 1885, was 1,055,187 bushels; in 1886 it was 1,239,844 bushels. The prison furnishes coal to the State institutions without charge, to the amount of \$25,000 or \$30,000 a year. Including this in the earnings, the mine cleared, in 1886, over and above the cost of maintenance of prisoners employed in mining, \$85,630 net profit to the State. It is proposed to buy additional coal land. In the opinion of Warden Smith, "coal mining is peculiarly adapted to convict labor; they are the healthiest prisoners we have." The surplus earnings of this prison, on all accounts, in 1885, were \$42,265.89; in 1886 they amounted to \$51,205.36. Without the mine, the balance would have been on the other side of the ledger.

I have a letter from a paroled man on his second parole, which illustrates the value of teaching a trade to men of this class. On landing at New York from Germany, four years ago, he was helpless and unable to earn. In his extremity he stole and was sent to the Reformatory at Elmira. After thirty-five months he was paroled to the care of his cousin in New York, who kindly promised to aid him. Still unqualified for useful work, he soon was adrift again; and, rather than steal, he voluntarily came back to the Reformatory. He was now put at a trade, held firmly at it (much of the time against his will), until, after twelve months, he was again paroled—this time not to his cousin's care, but to find for himself entrance into his new occupation outside. Fifteen days after his release he writes: "I am getting along finely, and no longer regret that I went back to the Reformatory voluntarily, for the trade you taught me makes me happy, and will not let me want."—*Z. R. BROCKWAY*

Superintendent Baker, of New York, pays the following high compliment to one of our friends: "Warden Brush has been in charge of Sing Sing for seven years. He has accomplished very notable results by his administration. The population of the prison has declined four per cent. The surplus earnings have increased 133 per cent. The discipline has steadily improved, so that it was the easiest to enforce, during the last year, of all the years; that is, the prisoners have obeyed the proper rules, and have shown self-control and intelligent good behavior as they have never done before, which is the highest proof of a sound system and of its admirable administration. And no prisoner has been discharged from Sing Sing, during the last year and a half, who could not read and write; the night-school has taught all the illiterate. So the prison has at once been a reformatory in respect to the habits of the population, an industrial school as to the labor of the inmates, and a common school as to the instruction of the ignorant and illiterate."

Juvenile Reformatories.

It is proposed to remove the Philadelphia House of Refuge to the county, and establish an Agricultural Reform School.

The Brothers of Charity in charge of the House of the Angel Guardian, at Boston, publish an interesting little pamphlet or magazine entitled, "The Angel Guardian Annual."

The Minnesota State Reform School has one peculiar feature—an annual encampment or picnic in the woods. It lasts one week, during which the children are permitted to enjoy sailing, rowing, fishing, and bathing to the fullest extent.

The New Jersey State Reform School publishes a table, from which it appears that 120 boys committed to it spent, on an average, 17 days each in a common jail before being transferred to the custody of the institution. The amount of damage done by this association with hardened offenders is incalculable.

Mr. L. D. Lewelling has resigned the superintendency of the Girls' Department of the Iowa Industrial School, at Mitchellville, after sixteen years of continuous service in that relation, and has been succeeded by Prof. C. C. Cory. It is Mr. Lewelling's intention to continue in the work, and he is open to an engagement elsewhere. The trustees passed a series of resolutions highly complimentary in their character, which we regret that we have not space to print in full.

The trustees of the Maine Reform School say: "The superiority of the cottage system over the congregate is demonstrated by the fact (1) that no State during the last twenty years has adopted the latter; (2) that no State having the cottage system would change to the congregate; (3) that States having the congregate would gladly change to the cottage; and (4) that States having both systems are rapidly changing to the cottage altogether."—*N. B.* It is barely possible that the experience of American reform schools may foreshadow the direction of future changes in our system of caring for the insane.

At the recent Conference of Charities and Corrections, in St. Paul, the statement was made, by a gentleman from Illinois, that our reform schools are preparatory schools for the prisons. How far that statement is true, with regard to our school, may be seen from the following: During the past eighteen years nearly 600 boys and about 50 girls have passed through it, and gone out into the world. At a recent visit to our State prison, at Stillwater, we found one only of our 650 graduates confined within its walls: and, of those now confined in our city workhouse, not one has been of our number.—*Minnesota Report.*

The most important departure we have made from the established customs of juvenile reformatories, has been in abolishing every thing in the way of grades and honors in our school, and in their stead inculcating the idea that good conduct should be aimed at because it is right; and that good scholarship and faithfulness and skill in work are desirable, because they are necessary to an honorable and happy career in after life. The system of grades and honors may and probably does show more immediate results, but such as are, I am sure, temporary and most unsatisfactory. Good conduct bought with a price carries with it no assurance that it will be continued, but rather argues that wrong-doing is likely to follow the withdrawal of the incentive which determined the action. We cannot, in the institution any more than in the home, afford to delude a boy into thinking that he is worthy of confidence and respect on account of any good deed he has performed from other than a noble motive. It was with much hesitancy that we decided to abandon the system of grades which prevailed for years in this school, and which is, in some form, in vogue in nearly every similar institution in the country; but, having thoroughly tested what we believe to be the better way, we are fully convinced that very much was gained, and very little lost, by the change.—*C. A. GOWER (Michigan).*

In the opinion of Mr. C. M. Harrison, superintendent of the Newark City Home, the paroling of girls is a somewhat doubtful experiment: one of every five paroled by him has, after a season of good behavior, broken away from restraint, and some of them, he fears, are permanently lost. "Although our girls leave us seemingly fortified with good resolves, we have no assurance of their continuous probity, if they are not wisely counselled and guarded. Before they came to us, under parental control, they were led astray; they became the victims of prurient sentiments and desires; they found fascination in debauching associations. Can we have surety that two years of teaching and of cleanly life will eliminate the terrible impressions of their youth, and so mercifully endow them with the appreciation and love of moral and religious principles, that they will be safe afterward under the lax government of their natural guardians? To ask the question is to answer it." The case of boys of feeble intellect is not much better. The majority of those of this class "are seemingly guileless, and are not violators of law," but "they are nevertheless shiftless, uncertain, rarely kept permanently by employers, and, with their meagre thought, they are dominated by the crudest theories of duty. They are, in a sense, self-vagrants, doing the world little if any good by their labors, but, on the contrary, cursing it by the eager propagation of their species. They never become adept criminals. Some may degenerate into coarseness and brutality; but, as a rule, with the worst of them, their depth is wife-beating and sneaking thievery."